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**The Relationship between Thai Culture and
the Learning and Teaching of English in
North-eastern Thailand**

Doctorate in Education (EdD)

**Centre for Research in Education
and Educational Technology (CREET)**

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Abstract

This research explores the relationship between Thai culture and the learning and teaching of English in north-eastern Thailand, by focusing on the adoption of learner-centeredness in the English language classroom, and whether it is mediated by Thai culture. This qualitative study employs observations, and individual/group interviews, using a socio-cultural framework to investigate primary school teachers' perceptions of learner-centered teaching, how they implement learner-centeredness in the classroom and how this is negotiated by Thai culture. In addition, students' perceptions of their learning preferences, and how they relate to learner-centeredness are both investigated in relation to Thai culture.

The research findings reveal that most Thai teachers of English taking part in this investigation were able to demonstrate aspects of learner-centered teaching, for example, engaging students, varied use of content, a learner-centered environment, some student autonomy, and assessment to reach student goals; however, they were not particularly adept at explaining theory during their interviews. Teachers highlighted a lack of confidence, a perceived deficit of pronunciation ability and the lack of opportunities to use English outside the classroom as having an influence on their effectiveness. In addition, a shortage of qualified English teachers, and excessive extracurricular activities in schools were also emphasised as having an impact.

Furthermore, the students liked to learn English by singing songs and playing games, and preferred their teacher marking their work, and working in groups, although teachers believed that their students also lacked confidence in using English.

This research has possible implications for teacher training, in that there may be a requirement for Thai culture, as well as the local context, to be taken into consideration when implementing educational change, including the involvement of all stakeholders in the educational process if it is to succeed.

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Table of Contents

Abstract	2
Acknowledgements	4
Chapter 1 Introduction	9
1.1 Context of this Research.....	12
1.2 Research Questions	21
Chapter 2 Literature Review	26
2.1 Culture	28
2.2 Aspects of Thai Culture.....	39
2.3 Second Language Acquisition.....	47
2.4 Learner-centeredness	56
2.5 Sociocultural Theory	64
Chapter 3 Methodology.....	72
3.1 My Position in the Research Process	74
3.2 Methods of Data Collection.....	76
3.2.1 Participant Selection	80
3.2.2 Classroom Observation.....	84
3.2.3 Teacher Interviews.....	89
3.2.4 Student Interviews	92
3.3 Ethical Considerations.....	94
3.4 Data Analysis	101
Chapter 4 Results and Discussion	115
4.1 What are Primary School Teachers' Perceptions of Learner-centeredness?.....	116

4.2 How do Teachers Implement Learner-centeredness?	156
4.3 What are Students' Perceptions of their Learning Preferences?	171
4.4 How do these Preferences Relate to Learner-centeredness?	184
Chapter 5 Conclusion	195
References.....	203
Appendix A - Observation Grid	226
Appendix B - An Example of the Fieldnotes.....	228
Appendix C - Conventions and Examples.....	229
Appendix D - Semi-structured Interview Questions for Teachers	230
Appendix E - Second Round Interview Questions for Teachers.....	231
Appendix F - Group Interview Questions for Students	233
Appendix G - Consent Form (Student - English)	234
Appendix H - Consent Form (Student - Thai)	235
Appendix I - Information Sheet (Student - English)	236
Appendix J - Information Sheet (Student - Thai)	238
Appendix K - Consent Form (Teacher - English)	239
Appendix L - Consent Form (Teacher - Thai).....	241
Appendix M - Information Sheet (Teacher - English).....	242
Appendix N - Information Sheet (Teacher - Thai)	244
Appendix O - An Example of One Complete Teacher Interview	246
Appendix P - Selected Transcription Including Thai for What are Thai Teachers' Perceptions of Learner-centeredness?	254

Appendix Q - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Do Thai Students and Teachers Lack Confidence?.....	268
Appendix R - Observation Grids for Emergent Themes.....	278
Appendix S - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Students Liking English	289
Appendix T - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Do Student Textbooks.....	291
Appendix U - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Students Playing Games	293
Appendix V - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Students Singing in English.....	300
Appendix W - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Students Watching Videos.....	307
Appendix X - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Groupwork or Working Individually	314
Appendix Y - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Work Graded by Peers or Teachers	316
Appendix Z - Selected Transcription Including Thai for English Outside the Classroom	319

Table of Figures

Figure 1 - Relationship between the Main Areas of Investigation, the Research Questions and Data Collection Methods	25
Figure 2 – Chronology of data collection	79
Figure 3 - Teacher participants and background details	82
Figure 4 - Student participants details	83
Figure 5 - Observation Grid.....	87
Figure 6 - The Deductive Qualitative Content Analysis Process	102
Figure 7 - Developing Structured Analysis Matrix	105

Chapter 1 Introduction

This research investigates the relationship between Thai culture and the learning and teaching of English in north-eastern Thailand. Thailand has been trying to move from a teacher-centered rote learning approach to teaching English, to a more communicative learner-centered methodology. This drive for change was instigated by the Thai Government when they initiated the 1999 Education Act (Office of the National Education Commission, 2012) to reform pedagogy from a teacher-centered into a learner-centered approach (Cheewakaroon, 2011).

Unfortunately, poor English results are revealed publicly every year, when the national examination results are published showing that students in years 6, 9 and 12 have not performed well in all subjects, not just English (Kaewmala, 2012). A possible reason for this is that only 30% of the primary curriculum is devoted to subjects like writing and mathematics, with the rest of the time taken up with extracurricular activities (von Feigenblatt, et al., 2010) and the learning of more time-honoured Thai values, such as how to be a good citizen and the twelve core values put forward by the current Prime Minister (National News Bureau of Thailand (NNT), Government Public Relations Department, 2014). In addition, Subpawanthanakun (2016) argues that the Thai version of Buddhism promoted by the state is responsible for the population to remain docile and accept their socio-economic status. The conundrum for Thailand is that there is a move to promote learner-centered teaching as well as an emphasis on the values of citizenship. This could create a conflict of interest.

My connection with the English language teaching context in Thailand is that I have been teaching English there for fifteen years at primary, secondary and predominantly the tertiary level. At university, I was aware of the low standard of English of my students

considering that they had been learning English for at least eight years, from Grade Four as was the policy of that time, before studying at university. Incorrect English usage had been fossilized, for example, basic errors like article omissions had been ingrained over time. Fossilization occurs when a language form is under developed and resists surrounding influences to change towards the desired target (Han, 2013). Washburn (1994) states that fossilization can be attended to by observations across tasks and groups, so I believed that the best way to effect change was to look at primary education, before the fossilization process had become too engrained and so concentrated my previous studies there. This involved delivering teacher training for primary school teachers in north-eastern Thailand (Graham, 2009), the production of DVDs for use in Thai schools, based on the primary school curriculum in Thailand (Graham, 2010), and the development of comics to supplement the DVDs already produced (Graham, 2011). I am currently researching the use of speech recognition software for English language learning for Thai schools.

Despite the attempts of the Thai government to modernise language pedagogy, the results did not improve, which prompted my decision to investigate why. I concluded that there might be the possibility that Thai culture could be influencing the English language development of Thai students. I began to wonder if learner-centered teaching, a pedagogical approach from the west (Frambach, et al., 2014) could be suitable and appropriate within Thai cultural traits. For example, one aspect of learner-centered teaching is that students are encouraged to reflect on the content of what they are learning in the classroom to make their own meaning out of it (Blumberg, 2009). This involves discussions and questions to both peers and teachers. However, Thai students are never taught to argue or challenge their teachers in class (Pisuthipan, 2016), which could be a barrier for the adoption of learner-centered teaching in Thailand.

Thongthew (1999) asks whether certain aspects of Thai culture, for example, supporting educational change at the theoretical rather than practical level, could prove inconsistent with what the instigators of educational reform require. In addition, Hallinger & Bryant (2013) question if there is conflict between culture and educational change, whether there will be resistance to the new implementation and if it will impact the time it takes to be put into practice. By exploring how learner-centeredness is implemented in the Thai primary school English language classroom setting, relations and connections may be made with aspects of learner-centered English language teaching and Thai cultural traits. In addition, links and associations could be made between the beliefs of Thai teachers of English concerning learner-centeredness as well as their students' beliefs, and Thai cultural values.

This research hopes to contribute to the field of English language learning and teaching by understanding teachers' perceptions of learner-centered teaching and how they implement it, mediated by Thai culture. To do this, the distances, similarities and contrasts of Thai culture and the countries where learner-centered teaching has been developed and delivered will be contrasted. I will use a definition of culture proposed by Hofstede (1980) who introduced the concept of cultural dimensions, that illustrate how culture affects the values of a society and influences their behaviour. In addition, students' perceptions of their learning preferences and how these preferences relate to learner-centeredness and Thai culture are also studied. This investigation draws on qualitative research analysed under a sociocultural lens, where there is an awareness of surroundings, circumstances, culture and society, using teacher observations, teacher interviews and group student interviews to investigate learner-centered teaching in the English language classroom. I will argue that there are certain aspects of Thai culture that influence the learning and teaching of English in north-eastern Thailand.

The thesis is structured in such a way as to underpin my study. Chapter 2 is the Literature Review, which details the available literature that supports my investigation. Included in this chapter, are sections on culture in general, Thai culture, second language acquisition, learner-centeredness, and sociocultural theory. Chapter 3 is the Methodology, which explains the methodology and methods utilized for this research and how the analysis was conducted. In addition, this chapter justifies why the study is qualitative in nature, relying on observations and interviews to gather the data, allowing for a sociocultural perspective. Chapter 4 is the Results and Discussion, where the findings and analysis take place to answer the research questions. Chapter 5 is the Conclusion, which gives a summary of key findings, the implications and limitations of the research, and future courses of action.

1.1 Context of this Research

As a member of the Expanding Circle of countries, alongside China and Indonesia which use English as a foreign language (Kachru, 2005), Thailand has experienced many English language teaching methodologies produced by theorists from the Inner Circle of English over the years (Methitham, 2009). Foley (2005) explains that in the 1960s, Thailand put an emphasis on English as a form of international communication with the use of the Audiolingual method, partly due to the American influence and the build up to the Vietnam War. The Audiolingual method was based on the formation of correct responses rather than learning from mistakes, where the language is presented in the spoken form first, and where analogy is used rather than analysis, allowing meaning to be understood in a cultural context (Rivers, 1964). However, there were also changes in 1977 and 1980 when a more communicative approach was introduced. From 1996, English has been taught in Thailand from Grade One under what was called a functional-communicative approach (Wongsothorn, 2000), where learners express language functions that they need to understand meaning. Halliday (1975) describes this as using language to get something (instrumental), to control others (regulatory), to interact (interactional), to express feelings

(personal), to learn (heuristic), to use imagination (imaginative) and to use language to communicate (representational).

Since the 1999 Education Act (Office of the National Education Commission, 2012), the teacher-centered approach has remained the mainstay in Thailand (Chorrojprasert, 2005), even though government directives require a move from a content-based rote learning curriculum to one which is more standards based, with can-do statements for all subjects (The Ministry of Education, Thailand, 2008). Hallinger & Bryant (2013) believe that educational reform in Thailand has become extremely slow due to the country's policymakers structural and political actions of creating new frameworks and passing laws, rather than taking a more sociocultural approach. Because of this, there is the danger of a potential mismatch when educational pedagogies are transported across cultures without due consideration for the host country's values and beliefs (Nguyen, et al., 2009). Research by Hallinger (2010) found that the obstacles to education reform in Thailand were a clash of values between culture and reforms, a lack of systemic perspective, communication of vision, coordination of implementation, resources and research base for change, the change of leadership during the implementation process, fear of losing power, power gaps between the levels, implementation of surface changes to the detriment of deeper reforms, and the preparedness of staff for the changes. He also emphasises that student-centered learning tends to be less familiar to Asian teachers and that the idea of peer learning may clash with deeply rooted cultural conventions (Hallinger, 2004).

Most English language teachers in basic education in Thailand have graduated in subjects other than teaching English, for example, physical education and IT; many not having had any pedagogical training to be a teacher. This has contributed to the generalised low level of proficiency in the English language perceived by English teachers in Thailand,

compounded by large classes, heavy teaching commitments and excessive administrative load (Mackenzie, 2004).

In this research, I explore the implementation of learner-centered pedagogies in Thailand, where teachers move from being givers of knowledge to student facilitators (Blumberg, 2009), and students take control over the content and process of learning based on their needs and capacity to learn (Schweisfurth, 2013a). The possible effect of cultural hegemony promoted by the Thai government will also be investigated, as the often-pervasive ideas emanating from mainstream Thai culture may not allow alternative ways of thinking, for example learner-centeredness being adopted by Thai teachers in their classrooms, which could be viewed as restricting social actions and changes to improve conditions (Crookes, 2015).

Thailand has practiced a policy of monolingualism as part of its nation building strategy since the beginning of the twentieth century (Huebner, 2014). This involved a concerted effort to make a national linguistic and ethnic community based around the central Thai language to the detriment of historically local dialects (Howard, 2012). In the past, the national language policy in Thailand put a lot of emphasis on the Thai language.

Foreign language learning, on the other hand, tends to be English as English is an international language for academic and occupational purposes (Sukamolson, 1998). Since 1997, Thailand seems to be taking a more pluralistic view to language policy (Luangthongkum, 2007), even debating the requirement of English as a second language in the country in 2010; however, the government did not take the opportunity to make English become part of Thai people's daily lives, and thus improve the opportunities to learn and practice the language, due to concerns that Thailand would be regarded by other countries as a colonized country (Tayjasanant & Robinson, 2014, p. 94). Today, Thai is the

language used in school for educational purposes with English taught exclusively as a foreign language and the ethnic dialects almost omitted from the education system entirely (Kirkpatrick & Liddicoat, 2017). These attitudes may point to why Thailand has struggled with English language teaching for many years, resulting in educators in the country requesting change (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2000). Foley (2005, pp. 231-232) explains that the difficulties experienced in English language learning are that students are not prepared for using English in real life situations; teachers are inadequately prepared and overloaded with responsibilities, and there is too much content in the curriculum.

The 1999 Education Act from the Office of the National Education Commission (2012) was seen as the breakthrough that was needed to jumpstart the stuttering education system as it called for the use of a more communicative approach to English language teaching, moving away from teacher-centered rote learning to a learner-centered implementation in order to improve communicative competence (Kantamara, et al., 2006). In addition, this Act was the catalyst for change after Thailand had survived the economic crisis of 1996 which focused public attention on Thailand's poor education system (Phungphol, 2005). Unfortunately, English in Thailand is currently ranked fifty-third out of eighty countries in the EF English Proficiency Index (Education First, 2017).

The definition of learner-centeredness in the 1999 Education Act is very broad and can be open to interpretation. Learner-centeredness for this investigation was defined by Schweisfurth (2013a) earlier in this section as when students are given the opportunity to have control over their content and the learning process depending on their needs, their interests and their aptitude. Doyle (2011) asks whether the activities chosen for the class are the best for the students to learn the skills and content required. The answer is not simple as the move from teacher-centered to learner-centered involves a different set of values and beliefs when selecting course content and the learning experience (Nunan,

1991), some of which could be conflicting with existing Thai cultural traits, for example, reluctance to ask questions in class.

There has never been a clear implementation process of learner-centered English language teaching to prepare teachers of English for this new pedagogy in Thailand (Thamraksa, 2003). Thailand is not alone in this predicament as many students in developing countries are not reaping the potential benefits of learner-centered education due to poor implementation of the pedagogy. Schweisfurth (2013b) believes that governments' execution of education reform does not seem to be an effective way for this to happen when the intention of the policy is supposed to go directly to the classroom, not considering the resources that learner-centeredness requires, or the cultural behaviour required between teacher and students. Thailand finds itself in the same situation. Baker (2008, pp. 137-138) states that Thai education is hampered by many issues, including insufficient budgets, large class sizes, substandard materials and equipment; and inadequately prepared teachers and testing, to name but a few. OECD/UNESCO (2016) explains that teacher training institutions in Thailand have shown no strategy in their approach to teacher education, resulting in inadequacies in teacher professional development, and heavy administrative duties that keep teachers outside of the classroom.

In 2011-2012 Thailand spent 17.3% of its national budget on education, being ranked sixth out of twenty-six countries (Fry & Bi, 2013), which is quite high when compared to its neighbours. In contrast, the education system in Thailand has been divided with only the more privileged attending the top universities and the lower rural and urban social classes the poorer quality institutions, with the possibility of the 1999 Education Act increasing the divide by creating unrealistic expectations of high quality education and institutionalising the partition (Pongwat & Mounier, 2010). New pressures exist with a declining birth-rate

and enrolment numbers in decline, forcing some universities to consider their future strategies (Mala, 2017).

Based on this information, Thailand can trigger and reinforce internally the implementation of learner-centered teaching, a pedagogy which has been called a travelling policy, moulded by globalization as countries seek to compete in the new knowledge economy and has been recognized by governments and international agencies throughout the world (Ozga & Jones, 2006). This perceived western education pedagogy was to be implemented in Thailand, a non-western environment (Grigorenko, 2007); however, the execution of this policy has been hindered by the educational choices Thailand has made since the 1970s of quantity before quality, perennial-postmodernism before progressivism, work before education, and diplomas before knowledge when reforming their education system resulting in the poor quality of education produced today (Mounier & Tangchuang, 2010). For Thailand's English language teachers to adopt learner-centered teaching in a communicative way, an understanding of Thai culture and how English is taught in local contexts in Thailand is required, in addition to understanding the difficulties that Thai teachers of English experience in their classrooms.

The move from a teacher-centered to a learner-centered classroom involves great change. Kennedy (1988) explains that the management of educational change is systemic and that there is a hierarchical order to the interrelating subsystems that influence classroom innovation, the most powerful is cultural. In addition, Fullan (1993) explains, without understanding the struggle between competing opposites, effective educational change will not take place, so to alleviate this problem, there is a need for both top-down (government) and bottom-up (teachers) strategies to be used, with the best organisations relating to the wider environment, which will allow everyone involved to be a change agent.

Thailand is not single-handedly facing this predicament of educational change.

Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and learner-centeredness has been part of the ELT reform process in China since the 1980s and they too have met with resistance (Yu, 2001) as this western pedagogy is considered by some to be in conflict with the Chinese culture of learning (Hu, 2002). Learner-centered teaching encourages students to learn by participating, whereas educators in China favour a more cognitive-centered approach involving learning and listening (Yuan & Xie, 2013). The application of second language acquisition and methodology around the world cannot take place free from cultural and institutional contexts (Badger & MacDonald, 2007).

Recent history of the north-eastern region, the locality of this research, as being on the periphery of Thailand is well documented (Gebhardt, 2004) as is the complex identity problems it faces (McCargo & Hongladarom, 2004) and how social hierarchy places the northeast at the bottom of an important social order (Alexander & McCargo, 2014).

Furthermore, as the heavily populated north-eastern region of Thailand (frequently called Isan) is predominantly rural and classed as marginalized by Piayura & Ayuwat (2012) and as a 'marginal environment' (Parnwell, 1988), it has been shown in many research articles and economic indicators to be at a clear disadvantage compared to other areas in Thailand (Fry & Bi, 2013). Although this region covers nineteen provinces and has the largest minority language in Thailand, it has eight times the poverty rate compared to the capital Bangkok (Draper, 2012a).

Kirkpatrick (2012) explains that the Thai education system continues to demonstrate inequalities within the education system. An example of this is where rural students, especially in the north-east of the country are at a disadvantage due to a lack of resources (Draper, 2012b). This has contributed to a rural-urban divide in Thailand (Graham, 2012),

which is likely to continue to grow due to the Matthew effect (Walberg & Tsai, 1983), which is a biblical reference used to explain how the distance between the wealthy and the poor extends over time. In the Thai context, educational inequality for north-eastern Thailand could expand over time as losses in the early years because of underfunding, and low access to pre-school and primary school are compounded by the continuation of a lack of funds and a shortage of qualified teachers (Fry & Bi, 2013), and are never made up.

Hayes (2010) explains how there are considerable achievement inequalities between socio-economically privileged students at urban schools compared to those students who are socially disadvantaged attending rural schools, which has reinforced the belief that the learning of English is for the urban elites. This has been expanded upon by Trakulkasemsuk (2018), who states that the elites use British English as their standard, the modern upper-middle class use American English, and the lower-middle classes use a non-native variety of English.

In addition, there is also a digital divide (Reich, 2012) because free innovations and free technologies have the potential to benefit the wealthy as well as the poor; however, this is not always the case. New digital advances can accelerate the Matthew effect even further due to the disadvantaged community not being able to take advantage of the new gratis developments as they are not able to acquire entry level status in the first place.

Rojanapanich (2012) believes that when technology is not available in certain parts of society, for example, poor rural areas, it can create gaps between groups in that society. For example, in north-eastern Thailand many households do not have a reliable electricity supply, although it is comparable to some eastern European countries (International Energy Agency, 2016). Moreover, access to the internet is limited in that Thailand's smartphone use for the internet is 90.4%; however, in the north-east it is 39.3% (Kressmann, 2017).

Draper (2012a) asks whether people believe that there is a real need for English language in the north-eastern region of Thailand, due to English being used for academic purposes but not being used as part of daily life, a subject alluded to earlier in this section. Added to this, Pattaravanich, et al., (2005) state that there is clear evidence of inequality in the educational investment in Thai children throughout the provinces in the northeast of Thailand. Foley (2007) informs us that Thai teachers of English require a more localized context if they are to succeed in teaching English and not necessarily rely on expertise (native speakers) from a different cultural background (Baker, 2012a). This may be true in principle, but not easy in practice, especially when governments dictate a new pedagogy such as learner-centeredness, with one set of standards to be implemented nationally, not considering the different needs and requirements of individual regions as has happened in Thailand.

Furthermore, Thai traditional values still play an important part in modern education. Some of these traditional values that may appear not so relevant to westerners in this modern era, are still held onto, for example viewing the world outside of Thailand as ambiguous and unstable, whilst some new values such as critical thinking are not embraced, which could result in a lack of progress (Kaur, et al., 2016). Thai people do not see themselves as ever having ‘ownership’ of the English language. They tend to view ‘native speakers’ as being the accepted model and they do not see themselves being as correct, especially when looking at pronunciation. This was exemplified by Boriboon (2013) who explained how teachers in upper north-eastern Thailand saw their accents and pronunciation as being the main areas that differentiate them from native speakers of English. The idea that the teachers’ pronunciation was not perfect nor correct could result in a loss of face and would attack status and ego, depending on the teacher concerned. When it came to teaching English, their roles as teachers meant that they were not interested in ownership, but the production of correct English for their students. This is especially the case when it comes

to the native-speaker of English as the only model for pronunciation in Thai tertiary education (Jindapitak, 2014). When face and ego are threatened, it is possible that teachers will experience a lack of confidence. Professional confidence is closely related to teacher proficiency and is particularly important as a foundation for English language teacher training (Burns, 2017).

1.2 Research Questions

The research questions for this investigation were chosen after conducting the initial study. The initial study was conducted with a view to preparing the theoretical framework, methodology and data analysis for the main study. The methodology used were classroom observations, teacher interviews and student group interviews. These methods were recorded on video and transcribed where necessary to understand the interactions taking place and in preparation for the main study. Field notes were also taken. From the literature that I had read in preparation for this initial study, I decided to use qualitative methods, rather than quantitative, in order to explore the phenomena of learner-centeredness in the classroom and Thai culture. In addition, the structural process of how learner-centeredness is implemented in the classroom was also to be investigated. This was to be conducted under a sociocultural framework, as I wanted to study values, beliefs and observe real actions and behaviours in the classroom, and I believed that these methods would give be the best possible data to analyse.

The participants for the initial study came from Education Area 2 in Udon Thani province and were purposively sampled due to one of the teachers being a former student of mine, who was able to organize the logistics, administration and permissions required to conduct the study. This involved finding an agreeable time to visit the school, talking to the school director and obtaining permission to conduct the initial study, arranging times for observations and interviews with teachers and students, and selecting the classes. This

would have been extremely difficult to achieve without the previous relationship with my former pupil and also the time spent speaking to the school director and making multiple visits.

Two classes were chosen by the school, Grade Two (students aged seven) and Grade Five (students aged ten), which had twenty-three and thirty-five students respectively. The students who participated in the group interviews were chosen by the teachers. One of the teachers acted as an interpreter for the other teacher interview and the student group interviews. The reason for this was that the teacher who was a former pupil of mine had just completed her MA English and had very good English proficiency; however, her colleague was not as proficient and by conducting the interviews in Thai with her and her students, it would allow for easier collection of the data. My Thai language skills are not up to the task at hand, and so there was a need for an interpreter. Whilst this would probably give moral support for the teacher being interviewed, this would also be beneficial when interviewing the young students who would not be able to understand the questions if they were asked in English. It also meant that there would be two teachers with me (the researcher) when interviewing the young students.

I learned from the initial study that in my main study I should concentrate on fewer teachers and to go deeper into understanding what the teachers had to say by reducing power differentials that may exist between the researcher and the participants, in this case, the teachers and the students (Mishler, 1986). Spending more time with teachers and students, taking into account Thai culture, relationship building and fostering a harmonious environment (Komin, 1991), would give me more meaningful data, allowing the teachers the opportunity to reveal their feelings and opinions (Oppenheim, 1992) by opening up over a period of time. I also learned that multiple visits would be needed to build up these relationships for the main study, and also there was a requirement to have someone in

place to assist with the logistics and administration, otherwise it would be very difficult to organise by myself.

Another important aspect of the initial study was the amount of time it took to collect and organise the data. Lessons were learned as to how to collate the incoming data and the processes required to keep records and analyse the data in a timely manner. For example, I was not sure that there would be the need for fieldnotes because I was recording the observations and interviews on video. It is difficult to video record and write fieldnotes at the same time; however, the fieldnotes became invaluable when looking back at the data collection process to find emerging themes appearing throughout the data I had collected before looking at the video that had been taken.

The initial study gave me the opportunity to organise and practice the procedures for data collection (observations of classes, followed by interviews with teachers and then their students, who are very young, aged between six and thirteen) that would be required for the main study. In addition, once the data were collected, the analysis provided the chance to practice putting the data into emergent themes to answer the research questions. While reflecting after the initial study, the original research questions were deemed too complicated and required refinement. This was due to the decision to interview fewer teachers twice, taking into account Thai culture and the importance of relationships, which produced rich data and deep understanding. There were two research questions for the initial study:

1. What is the relationship between teachers' conceptions of learner-centeredness and their enactment of learner-centered pedagogies to Thai culture?
2. What are the students' perceptions of their learning preferences, how do they compare to what teachers believe they require and how does this relate to Thai culture?

I wanted to focus on learner-centeredness in the classroom and to understand the teachers' perceptions of this teaching pedagogy. In addition, the implementation of learner-centered teaching was also important as it could be contrasted with the teachers' perceptions. The possible role that Thai culture plays in learner-centered teaching was also to be investigated to find out if there were any relationships.

In learner-centered pedagogy, aside from the teachers, the students also have a voice. Students' learning preferences and how they relate to learner-centered teaching are important aspects of learner-centered pedagogy. How these preferences could relate to Thai culture is also under investigation. Six research questions were developed and are provided at Figure 1.

Figure 1 - Relationship between the Main Areas of Investigation, the Research Questions and Data Collection Methods

Main Areas of Investigation	Research Questions	Data Collection Methods
Teacher perceptions of learner-centeredness.	Q1. What are primary school teachers' perceptions of learner-centeredness?	Teacher interviews.
Teacher implementation of learner-centeredness.	Q2. How do teachers implement learner-centeredness?	Teacher observations.
Mediation by culture.	Q3. How is learner-centeredness mediated by Thai culture?	Teacher interviews and observation.
Student perceptions of learning preferences.	Q4. What are students' perceptions of their learning preferences in and out of the classroom?	Group student interviews.
Student preferences and relation to learner-centeredness.	Q5. How do these preferences relate to learner-centeredness?	Group student interviews.
Student preferences and relation to Thai culture.	Q6. How are these preferences mediated by Thai culture?	Group student interviews and observations.

Chapter 2 Literature Review

This chapter reviews the literature for this study. The main themes of the Literature Review are culture, Thai culture, Second Language Acquisition (SLA), learner-centeredness, and sociocultural theory. These themes were identified as they are directly related to the research questions stated in the previous chapter.

First, this chapter covers general cultural theory consisting of values and beliefs, culture from an entity perspective and then moves to a more specific review of Thai culture. The entity perspective is part of my epistemological position in that I am using national cultural dimensions to analyse and describe data, rather than firmly placing the individual participants of this research into a static country dimension. Culture for this research is treated as a coherent structure, which remains relatively stable in the minds of members of a society (Dimaggio & Markus, 2010), in other words, a shared way of knowing (Barth, 1995). This contrasts with an incremental theory of culture, where the behaviour and personality are thought to be more vibrant and supple over time and differing contexts (Levy, et al., 2001). This context can be considered more of a schema than stereotypical. The difference between a schema and a stereotype can be used to understand the context more clearly (Holliday, et al., 2004). Schemas are cognitive structures made the first time an event happens, so we can recognise it when it happens again. If these schemas are not modified by new experiences, they become hardened and rigid and do not serve the genuine purpose of describing what is happening around us and thus become stereotypical. A schematic approach will allow cultural dimensions to be used to compare learner-centered teaching and Thai cultural characteristics for this research.

The next section in this chapter relates to SLA, detailing theories as to how people learn a second language, by explaining how SLA emerged from both linguistic and psychology

standpoints (Saville-Troike, 2012), allowing for a framework that allows for the values and attitudes of culture, and status to be considered when investigating the SLA process in the context of learner-centered teaching, classroom interactions, the social contexts of learning, and the situational setting of this research. In addition, language input, output, and interaction are discussed, as well as how learner-centered teaching corresponds with SLA.

Learner-centeredness and the focus on the student in the classroom is a very significant aspect of this research. Student interaction with the teacher as well as with other students is explained with a view to analysing the implementation of learner-centered teaching in the English language classroom, in primary schools in Thailand. The difficulties of implementing learner-centered teaching in developing countries are examined, using examples from Thailand, which is the focus of this research, with reference to other countries, to provide critical background knowledge for what takes place in the classroom when countries move from a teacher-centered to a more learner-centered pedagogy.

The last theme in this chapter deals with sociocultural theory, which will be used to address the key issues surrounding the relationship between Thai culture and the implementation of learner-centered teaching. Social interactions and group relations taking place in the learner-centered classroom will be studied, considering the cultural setting, the social dimension, and the complexities of the classroom. This will allow insight into how teachers perceive learner-centered teaching, how they implement it in the classroom and how students perceive their learning preferences regarding learner-centered teaching. Finally, there is a summary of the chapter, which brings together the themes from all the sections.

2.1 Culture

Culture means different things to different people. To understand such a concept is difficult due to the complexity of the subject and the tendency for people to generalise and personalise (Sheets, 2005). Kramsch (1998) contrasts culture to nature by explaining that nature is what is born and is organic, whereas culture is grown and groomed. All social interaction, the acquired and communal day to day living patterns are what we call culture (Damen, 1987). People who are part of the same culture will interpret the meaning of their symbols, artefacts and their group behaviours in a similar way (Banks & McGee Banks, 1987). This has been derived from the group's social environment and not passed down in the gene pool (Spencer-Oatey, 2012). It is this social environment, the interaction between teachers and students as well as students and students of the English language classroom that will be investigated.

Matsumoto (1996) identifies culture as a set of values and beliefs, leading to attitudes and behaviours by groups of people, which are exchanged and passed down from generation to generation, even though they are different for every individual person. This is an important distinction, in that culture, with its values, beliefs, attitudes and behaviours, is the description of a group of people, not an individual. Lewis (2006) states that generally, regional or national culture dominates our behaviour, resulting in our acceptance among our peers the more we interact with the group. For example, Triandis (1995) states that culture is related to our society in the same way that individuals have memories in that it is something that we have used and has worked in the past. Having had the experience, a member of the group will tell another, and this information is passed on as it is shared.

Kroeber & Kluckhohn (1952) produced 164 distinct definitions of culture. They explained that culture was a product of both implicit and explicit patterns of behaviour, that was attained and conveyed by symbols and artefacts typically associated with groups of people,

their traditional ideas and the values that come with them. Importantly, cultural systems may be classed as creations from both action and future activities of these groups. Culture can be seen as characteristics of a collective, rather than an individual, which is demonstrated (although sometimes it is not clearly visible) in group behaviour by some, but not all the people in that society (Hofstede & McCrae, 2004). The cultural characteristics of the collective are significant as the collective being investigated in this research are the Thai teachers of English and their students interacting in their learner-centered English language classrooms. The group cultural characteristics of Thai teachers of English will be scrutinised when they are observed using learner-centered pedagogy originally promoted by countries like USA and UK, to understand their perceptions of learner-centeredness, how it is implemented, and how it is mediated by Thai culture.

As identified by Chatman & Cha (2003) culture is a structure of shared values and norms which define what is important and how to behave. This includes customary values and beliefs that social, ethnic and religious groups transmit over the generations, that remain fairly stable over time (Sapienza, et al., 2006).

Culture is explained by Hall (1976) as being a system that people live by which is firmly rooted in its society, that everyone understands, but would find difficult to explain to anyone outside that community. He continues to detail how there are out-of-awareness areas of culture that are not explicit due to the rules and regulations that govern the culture concerned. This idea of a non-explicit part of culture was illustrated by Weaver (1986) as an iceberg, where Hall's cultural unconscious (non-explicit) was invisible under the awareness level boundary, just like an iceberg having most of its mass underwater and unseen by those looking on. What is left for all to see is the surface culture, such as language, the arts and literature. It is the deep culture that lies under the waterline that impacts so much of what takes place in people's lives daily and it is this deep culture

belonging to the Thai primary school teachers and students that may relate to the way English is taught and learned in the classroom in a learner-centered way.

Hall (1976) adds High Context (HC) and Low Context (LC) communication to the discussion, where HC communication can be described as where most of the information is contained in the internalization of the person and the physical context. The LC message relies more on the transmitted part of the communication and what is explicit and focuses on the code of the message. Once again, in detailing their concept of cultural metaphor, Gannon & Pillai (2013) have acknowledged the work by Hall & Hall (1990) on communication patterns, specifically context, space, time and information flow. These communication patterns relate to learner-centered teaching (context and time), and in the English language classroom (space and information flow), for the purposes of this research.

These traditional viewpoints of culture have been reassessed over the years. Zotzmann & Hernández-Zamora (2013) explain how in the 1980s there was a cultural turn away from a more elitist view of culture in language teaching and learning to one which focused on more everyday culture experienced during linguistic routines. A transcultural approach to culture was put forward by Risager (2011) explaining that the interdisciplinary nature of culture has given rise to many different theoretical and philosophical standpoints dominated by academics presenting their own viewpoints through monographs with a lack of referencing to previous academics creating problems when trying to follow lines of reasoning on the subject. The aforementioned cultural turn sees the role of culture as transcultural, evoking pluralism, complexity, and hybridity as important segments of all processes in culture (Risager, 2007). Kramsch (1993) introduces an intercultural third space, where the relevance of native-speaker and non-native is questioned by looking at home cultures versus target cultures as well as self versus others.

Similar to Kramsch, Holliday (2011) focuses on what he sees as the west and those on the outside, stating that there is a responsibility to be fair when labelling cultures, making sure that no culture is classed as outsiders or others. This post-colonial viewpoint is echoed by Kumaravadivelu (2007) who criticises an imperialistic viewpoint that some may have between the colonial centre and those countries on the periphery. This perceived imperialistic way of thinking was explained in more detail by Canajarah (2002) as being when one group's values and beliefs are held in higher regard than others, resulting in a detrimental effect on learners from certain cultures. Kramsch (2011) correctly states that it is important to analyse our own perspectives in how we determine culture. In addition, cultural, symbolic and institutionalised capital all play an important part within a culture, allowing for the disparities between rich and poor (Zotzmann & Hernández-Zamora, 2013).

This cultural turn away from a perceived colonialist viewpoint can be used to analyse, explain and describe cultural events that emerge from collected data; however, it does become difficult when making comparisons and contrasts between pedagogical practice with roots in a foreign culture and the underlying cultural traits of a different nation who plan to adopt it. Baker (2012b) uses Thailand as an example to show how initial approaches to cultural awareness called “definable entities” developed by Byram (1997, p. 28), have been used as the foundation for what he calls intercultural awareness, whereby the sociocultural nature of English as a lingua franca is taken into account. The opportunities to expand intercultural awareness in Thai classrooms is a noble undertaking; however, this may not work, considering that most of the population do not use English as a lingua franca, especially in the poorer rural areas where most Thai people reside.

It is important to comprehend the distance between Thai culture and some western cultures if we are to see how an educational approach defined by the west, encompassing western techniques, could be similar or different from what Thai teachers of English are used to. By using cultural dimensions that explain the values and behaviours of groups of people, culture is relative rather than being absolute (van Tulder, 2010), allowing comparisons to take place between national cultures. The relevance of these cultural distances and contrasts for this research is to illustrate the differences in cultural dimensions between the countries that develop the pedagogy that drives English language learning and teaching in a global context (in this case learner-centered pedagogy from the west, USA, UK, Australia, Canada and New Zealand) and Thailand which is a recipient of this approach and is a featured country in Hofstede's (1980) initial research into national cultures and also cross-cultural teaching and learning situations (Hofstede, 1986). It is important to state at this point that these distances are not in any way implying that there is any deficit applied to countries or nationalities. It is the similarities and differences of cultural dimensions that are being investigated, because as Jones (2013) explains, in a context such as this, culture does not make much sense without differences. That being said, care must be taken to not interpret these dimensions as absolute facts, to make over generalisations or questionable statements (Holliday, et al., 2004).

It is of note that Hofstede's cultural dimensions were also used by Hallinger & Kantamara (2000) to study school leadership change and when investigating school improvement in Thailand (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2001). By using these dimensions for their research, they were able to conclude that rather than focus on the technical aspects of learner-centeredness, it would be beneficial to spend more time explaining the moral aspects, based on Thai culture, to build confidence in teachers and convince them that it was something worthwhile. In addition, research into fifteen years of educational reform in Thailand (Hallinger & Bryant, 2013) used Hofstede's high Power Distance dimension

(Hofstede, 1980) to conclude that global policymakers tended to overestimate the speed of implementing educational change by the Thai government.

When plotting Power Distance against Individualism/Collectivism, Hofstede (1980) illustrates how Thailand has a large Power Distance and low Individualism score, grouping it with countries such as South Korea, Chile and Portugal. Power Distance is the acceptance of prestige, wealth and power, and Individualism reflects the importance of self and family as a priority. In contrast, USA, Great Britain, Canada, New Zealand, Australia and the Netherlands were at the opposite end of the index, being classified as having small Power Distance and high Individualism. These dimensions have importance for this research as the Power Distance between teacher and students and the Collectivist nature of pair-work and groupwork, are areas of investigation that can illustrate how learner-centered teaching is conducted in a classroom and whether successful learning is taking place.

Within a collectivist society such as Thailand (Gannon & Pillai, 2013), research by Embree (1950) stated that it is possible to have what is perceived by many as a loosely woven social structure where a considerable amount of variation of a person's behaviour is allowed. This was discounted by Mulder (1979) nearly thirty years later, when explaining how social rules and regulations take priority over the laws of the land. This would seem very perplexing for non-Thais as there appears to be many contradictions (Gannon & Pillai, 2013); however, this has been explained by Triandis & Gelfand (1998) who used four identifying traits to describe their horizontal and vertical distinctions of both individualism and collectivism.

Collectivism and individualism were classified into four sub-sections; the definition of oneself, the priority of personal and group goals, stress on reason rather than associations

and ways of thinking, and norms as determiners of social behaviour. Collectivism and individualism were now classed as being horizontal (stressing parity) and vertical (stressing hierarchy) by Triandis & Gelfand (1998). Their research demonstrates that non-western cultures such as Korea could be defined as a vertical collective culture, as it is considered as authoritarian and traditional culture, but also emphasizing social harmony, much like Thailand (Gannon & Pillai, 2013).

Hofstede (1980) also plotted Masculinity/Femininity against Uncertainty Avoidance, which illustrated how Thailand is classified as having strong Uncertainty Avoidance and as being Feminine and grouped with countries such as Taiwan and Iran. The Uncertainty Avoidance dimension outlines the magnitude to which nations are made anxious by uncertainty and matters they cannot predict, and the Masculinity/Femininity dimension is a scale that is used to demonstrate how nations attribute the social roles of men in their society. On the other hand, USA, Great Britain, Canada, New Zealand and Australia were classed as weak Uncertainty Avoidance and Masculine. These two dimensions are important for this research in that Uncertainty Avoidance can be demonstrated by students appearing passive and not wanting to answer questions for fear of making a mistake; and the Femininity dimension of Thai people means that it is possible that the task that needs to be completed in the classroom becomes secondary to maintaining harmony in the group (Komin, 1991). These elements may be significant when using learner-centered pedagogy in the classroom; however, viewing these dimensions as opposite polarisations and fixed is naïve and can lead to over generalisations. In addition, the terminology of masculine and feminine may not be seen by some as politically correct when defining societal culture (Dimmock & Walker, 2000). It is important at this stage to state that not all of Hofstede's dimensions are relevant for this research as subsequent dimensions (Long-term Orientation, and Indulgence (Hofstede, et al., 2010)) were devised much later and used different participants.

Taking an entity view of culture can be viewed by many researchers as unorthodox, as there has been a backlash against the idea of essentialism over the last twenty years (Kullman, 2017). Holliday (2000) explains that the essentialist view is one that believes culture is a solid and firm social phenomenon, with layers of sub-cultures like an onion skin and was prevalent in applied linguistics and language education as it was aligned with national languages, the learning of languages, and the learning of culture. On the other hand, he describes the non-essentialist view of culture as a concept that is flexible and used differently, by different people to suit their contexts. The move away from an essentialist view to one that is non-essentialist over recent years is most likely due to the perceived idea that an essentialist view is restrictive and fits behaviour into pre-determined categories, whereas the non-essentialist view is thought to be free of pre-conceived ideas and allows more freedom when analysing social behaviour. For example, Kumaravadivelu (2007) believes that the Individualist/Collectivist cultural categories can be regarded by some as a comparison between the individualistic west and others who are somewhat deficient in comparison. This does not necessarily have to be the case.

Holliday (2010) believes that national social structures do not automatically explain culture in the real world. Using Thailand as a case in point, the truth may in fact be the opposite. As mentioned earlier, Mulder (1979) informs us that social rules and regulations take priority over the laws of the land and that Thailand was not a loosely structured society as was first discussed by Embree (1950). Consequently, this research has taken an entity or essentialist view of culture to describe the behaviour observed and recounted in interviews, rather than to make a judgement of what is better or worse, without necessarily aligning the cultural dimensions used with national culture. The dimensions will be used to describe, compare and to contrast aspects of learner-centered teaching and learning (Blumberg, 2009) to explain the varying degrees of learner-centeredness taking place and how it is

mediated by Thai culture. Hofstede's (1980) four dimensions as well as his cross-cultural learning situations (Hofstede, 1986) will be used in conjunction with Thai specific cultural traits from the available literature to illustrate how learner-centered teaching is understood by the participating Thai teachers of English and whether observed events in the classroom follow perceived national cultural norms, focusing on the interaction between the teacher and the students and between students. Student perceptions of their learning preferences will be investigated with a view to how learner-centered teaching has been adopted in the classroom, mediated by Thai culture. This way, an essentialist view to culture does not have to be a constraint on the research taking place, nor does it have to be judgemental, racist or sexist.

Many essentialist studies have been based on Hofstede's theories (Taras, et al., 2010), including research in Thailand's education system (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2000); however, there have been some detractors, namely McSweeney (2002), Baskerville (2003) and Fang (2003). McSweeney (2013) has been particularly persistent whilst supporting Brewer & Venaik (2012) in their request that organisational managers refrain from using national culture dimensions scores for individuals, a view which is also shared by Hofstede (2002) himself, which for some reason tends to be overlooked in the published literature on the subject. Holliday (2000) explains that Hofstede warns of the danger of national stereotyping, whilst detailing how the major part of his research has been based around the characteristics which distinguish national cultures. It is important to understand that cultural distance is the difference in cultural values between countries at the national or cultural level, whereas the psychic distance is the perception by and of the individual and should be used for assessment by managers at the individual level (Sousa & Bradley, 2006). Shenkar (2001) argues that many researchers have made the error of referring to the psychic distance in their research and then use Hofstede's dimensions as the only indicator in their analysis of data. Cultural distance may be considered as one element of psychic

distance at the theoretical level, but at the empirical level they are separate constructs (Dow & Karunaratna, 2006). This is particularly relevant for this research, as the perception of the individual is not what is being investigated. What is applicable to this research is the group values and beliefs of the teachers and students under investigation, hence the entity/essentialist view of culture, using the cultural dimensions to describe the emerging learner-centered themes taking place, demonstrating that an entity or essentialist viewpoint may not necessarily act as a constraint when looking at groups rather than individuals. Qu (2013, p. 162) states that, “cultural differences are subjective constructs that are only necessary and perhaps indispensable cognitively for imposing coherence on an otherwise daunting diversified experience.”

There are many country profile frameworks used to compare national cultures, some of them based on the work of Hofstede, predominantly for business and leadership. Gannon & Pillai (2013) have built their work on dimensions such as time and space when making comparisons between societies. Their cultural metaphors consider work by Kluckhohn & Strodtbeck (1961) detailed earlier, as well as communication patterns by Hall & Hall (1990). In addition, they used established country profiles based on work by Hofstede (1991), (2001), as his work was deemed significant due to the type of organisation (IBM) being investigated remaining constant throughout the large-scale study. This consistency, as well as the specific inclusion of Thailand in Hofstede’s (1980) study, make the later work on cross cultural learning situations (Hofstede, 1986) a very important part of this current study.

Another country profile framework, the Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness (GLOBE) study (House, et al., 2004) was also used as part of the Gannon & Pillai (2013) study. The GLOBE study (House, et al., 2004) has nine cultural dimensions, which differentiated between values and practice which is a major difference with the work

of Hofstede (Gannon & Pillai, 2013). The Uncertainty Avoidance and Power Distance dimensions are similar to Hofstede (1980); however, Collectivism/Individualism has been divided into In-group and Institutional Collectivism. Gender Egalitarianism and Assertiveness are dimensions constructed by Gannon and Pillai (2013) to demonstrate how Hofstede's (1980) Masculinity/Femininity dimension has been divided and used as part of the GLOBE study (House, et al., 2004). The GLOBE study (House, et al., 2004) focused on the relationships between culture, leadership, social, and organizational effectiveness rather than shared values and norms of countries.

In addition, Lewis (2006) believes that regional characteristics can also dominate national characteristics, as can cities with strong cultural identities and corporate culture, family culture, individual culture and gender. At first, this study would appear relevant for this current research; however, the purpose of this model is for the assessment of individuals in a commercial role (Richard Lewis Communications, 2017), rather than on cultural dimensions and values.

In summary, for this research culture will be viewed by using national cultural traits from an entity perspective (Dimaggio & Markus, 2010) via means of Hofstede's four dimensions (Hofstede, 1980). These were chosen as they were the most productive way to analyse the data by understanding distances between cultures, in this case Thai culture and an educational approach with techniques from the west, when culture is viewed as having relatively stable traits, and behaviour is expected with a high degree of certainty (Levy, et al., 2001). The inclusion of Thailand in Hofstede's (1980) IBM study, which demonstrated participation consistency throughout the organisation, and follow up work on cross cultural learning situations (Hofstede, 1986) make the use of cultural dimensions an important factor when investigating the use of learner-centeredness in Thai English language

classrooms, in that they can be used to compare and contrast possible behaviours of teachers and students to learning situations that actually take place in Thai classrooms.

The critics of an entity perspective continue to portray the approach as highlighting deficiency and placing groups or individuals as others. Holliday (2009) uses the example of individualist and collectivist cultures to describe how both are Western Eurocentric academic theories which when explained in terms of cultural politics put forward ideas of a culturally superior Centre-Western self and inferior Other. This situation can be looked at from a different perspective. Triandis (1995) shows that by defining individualist and collectivist culture further, it is possible to have a better understanding of how this dimension can be understood. By attributing descriptions of horizontal and vertical elements to the dimension, it is possible to describe how a horizontal element has an emphasis on similar attributes and status, and vertical accepts inequality and provides a space where status brings with it a certain amount of privilege. From these descriptions, there is no deficit culture or othering, just a description. That being said, Triandis (1995) incorrectly classifies Thailand as a loosely structured society (Mulder, 2000), when in fact it would be better described as a vertical collectivist society.

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2.2 Aspects of Thai Culture

When investigating the relationship between Thai culture and the learning and teaching of English in north-eastern Thailand, there are some potential cultural obstacles to overcome when adopting a method of instruction, predominantly used in the west, such as learner-centeredness, in a country like Thailand, which has a different set of values and beliefs. According to Knutson (1994), Thai surface culture relies strongly on the three pillars, nation, religion and monarchy to fashion and preserve Thai culture. The most well-known research into the Thai character traits was conducted by Komin (1990). She discussed the importance of the self-policing of behaviour called *kreng jai* which is based on the duty

and responsibility that individual Thais feel that they must perform. Mulder (2000) believes that this is to keep harmony in line with their perceived social position, power and influence in society. Komin (1991), explains that *kreng jai* is a basic social rule followed by all Thais, superiors, juniors and equals, and the only part that changes is the degree to which it is used. This is conducted by presenting a cool temperament (Klausner, 2000) and conducting oneself in a way that is socially acceptable for one's position at all times. Phillips (1965) would describe this as being cosmetic in appearance as it is founded on the preservation of face always. This is a particularly important aspect of Thai culture relevant to this research as the maintaining of face by teachers and students is investigated in relation to learner-centered teaching.

To explain further, face is described by Merkin (2006) as an individual's public self-image. All cultures have an element of saving face. It is culture, rather than the circumstances we find ourselves in that decides ourselves and the resulting public face (Hofstede, 2001). What is of relevance for this study is the importance that saving face has for individuals within a culture when learning English. For example, a student in Thailand would find it difficult to ask a teacher to repeat an explanation for fear of not showing due deference (Foley, 2005). Saving of face or fear of failure, which is so significant for Thai people is explained in detail by Persons (2008), where the concept of face for Thai people can be illustrated by examining five aspects: *nata*, *kiat*, *chuesiang*, *saksi* and *barami*.

The first, *nata* is the appearance of being honourable, or as Persons explains, 'having face-eyes' (Persons, 2008, p. 54). This is the outer appearance or how as people we would want others to perceive us and is made up of the following four aspects. *Kiat* is being truly virtuous and gives the holder legitimacy and *chuesiang*, is how someone is accepted in society, whether it is truly deserved through good deeds or whether someone is good looking or has a desired quality by society. It is also the company that you keep. *Saksi* is

the driving force of virtue. This is a very strong individualistic force which is ever-present in what has been categorised as a collectivist society and was explained earlier in this thesis by Triandis & Gelfand (1998) in their studies into collectivism and individualism classed as being horizontal, stressing parity and vertical, which stresses hierarchy. The last is *barami* which is the doing of good deeds for the benefit of others.

The relationships between these five aspects of Thai face are extremely complicated and can be interpreted in many ways. Persons (2008) has shown in his study that the Thai people who participated in his research were not sure of all the different meanings concerning face and found it even more difficult to explain the relationships and how they affect each other. Thai people demonstrate uncertainty avoidance by giving great importance to all forms of ceremonies and religious, academic and family celebrations (Merkin, 2006), allowing individuals the feeling that they are in control (Hofstede, 2001). A replication of Hofstede's study (1980) and his later study (2001) by Merkin (2006) throws light on how the Uncertainty Avoidance dimension (Hofstede, 1980) and the maintenance of face are related.

To reduce uncertainty, a culture with strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1980) like Thailand tends to put everything through a filter, much like the High Context and Low Context communication described earlier by Hall (1976). This process may sometimes mean that communication passed by westerners may not be completely understood and gives rise to observations by Embree (1950) relating to *choei*, which is the cool temperament displayed by Thai people toward responsibility, difficulties and work (Landon, 1968). This is the type of look that is displayed when students are silent and do not want to answer a question in class (Deveney, 2005).

Komin (1990) explains how ego is the highest of nine Thai values. She states that being oneself and having high self-esteem are examples of ego and that Thais do not accept any infringement. Hierarchy is seen to benefit all, and subordinates are content with their position in life (Lewis, 2006). This personal interest can also explain why some Thais exhibit exclusionary indifference in the pursuit and protection of their ego (Lillehammer, 2014) especially when criticism is involved as it is difficult to part the criticism from the individual that is being criticized (Komin, 1990), which could lead to problems in the English language classroom, when learner-centeredness encourages students to take risks.

The second value is grateful relationship (Komin, 1991). This is the reciprocation of kindness and is rated very highly by Thai people. This is called *bunkhun* and involves two aspects, the acknowledgement of an act of kindness and the other is the reciprocation of that kindness (Komin, 1991). The next value is smooth interpersonal relationship which has Thais showing a preference for non-assertiveness, politeness and pleasant interactions (Komin, 1991). This includes the containing of emotions and the display of *choei* (behaviour of no response) and the display of indifference, which can be seen when face is threatened. These two values demonstrate the importance of relationships for Thai people.

The fourth value is flexibility and adjustment (Komin, 1991). The ability to successfully juggle ego, power and important situations describes this value; however, law and order and ideology are not included. This value is very much situation based and explains why there is a problem with law enforcement in Thailand (Komin, 1991). Thais are situation orientated and the idea that a person is more important than the system is a possible cause of the endemic corruption reported around the country (Komin, 1990). For the context of the classroom, how do students and teachers interact when using learner-centered teaching when the individual may consider themselves more significant than the lesson taking

place? It might be that students will value their relationships more than the task they have to complete as part of their learning.

Komin's (1991) fifth value is religio-psychical and shows the importance that Thais put on their religious beliefs. Approximately 95% of Thais are Buddhists (Knutson, 1994); however, there is widespread belief in supernatural powers, spirits and magic. Even highly educated people such as educators and politicians believe in fortune telling, just as much as the uneducated (Komin, 1990). There are some academics that believe that many East and Southwestern Asian cultures are collectivist because of religion and that Buddhism is collectivist because of the wider cultural influences (Cohen, et al., 2016). Cohen & Varnum (2016) state that religious cultures differ in certain aspects of cognition due to variations in individualism and collectivism in certain religious groups. Religious culture can also influence moral judgement and work ethic. For example, Thai Buddhism requires people to restrain themselves, keeping their emotions as well as bodily movement under control (Gannon & Pillai, 2013). This could restrain students from expressing themselves in the classroom.

Thailand is a Buddhist country based on Theravada Buddhism. The Theravada canon has three sections, Discipline, Sutras and Dhamma. Of considerable interest for this research is the Kalama's Sutra from the section of Sutras which explains how Buddhists should question to gain more understanding of where knowledge comes from and what it means, rather than just believe what they hear and read. This criterion for rejection (Thera, 2010) is not adhered to in the classroom and is the opposite of what teachers in Thailand experience today. Even though the clear majority of Thais are Theravada Buddhists, students remain mute and do not feel comfortable asking or answering questions in a Thai classroom (Deveney, 2005).

Wisadavet (2003) explains that although Buddha states that the truth is fixed, questioning is encouraged through openness, inquiry and reform of which the Kalama's Sutra is a potent force allowing people to find the causes of specific phenomena. Hongladarom (2004) believes that there is an aporia in Thai culture that sees a conflict between the Buddhist teaching and morals with the advancement of western science and the abandonment of old indigenous techniques resulting in passive performance in the classroom by students and the detachment of education from the majority of society. The deference shown in the classroom and the disconnect between education and the community (Wisadavet, 2003), and most importantly the learning of English in a learner-centered way will be studied as part of this research.

The education and competence value is sixth and can be explained as form over substance. Komin (1991) gives examples of fake degree scandals and bribery to acquire good grades as ways that this value is demonstrated. To reiterate, the certification is more important than the educational content and this is illustrated by the preoccupation in the attainment of grades by students rather than the value of knowledge learned. This means that form over substance is preferred with a heavy investment in presentation (masking emotions and personal drive), reflecting the position and status of the individual (Mulder, 2000). This value could influence the use of learner-centered teaching if teachers were to use the form of learner-centered teaching, without paying attention to the substance.

The seventh value is interdependence and is the community spirit and sense of coexistence and interdependence (Komin, 1991) giving credence to the important part that the Thai rural community has to play in daily life. This is followed by 'fun and pleasure' which describes how Thai people become easily bored if they are doing something that is not '*sanuk*' (fun) and forms the basis for the "Thai Smile' analogy. These two values are once

again relationship based, illustrating how important relationships are to Thai people, as is the last value.

The last of Komin's Thai values is achievement-task, described as the intrinsic towards achievement through dint of hard work (Komin, 1991). This equates to a lack of ambition as maintaining good relations is seen as being more important. Achievement is seen by Thais as being more social in nature, based around good relationships. Task achievement in isolation will not do. This may have an adverse effect when undertaking tasks as part of the communicative approach to English language learning (Nunan, 2004) in that Thai culture dictates that those subordinates that are task achievement orientated are not thought of highly by superiors as they are often seen as inconsiderate, disrespectful and disobedient (Komin, 1990). This conundrum seems in direct conflict with learner-centeredness, where task achievement is just as important as how it is realised.

Raktham (2012) regards Komin (1991) and Hofstede (1980) as laying down uniformal policy to describe individual members of a culture, to the extent that individual differences are suppressed. For the Thai people, there is something to be said for this, as there is clear evidence that Thai people suppress their emotions during social interaction to conform to smooth interpersonal interactions (Komin, 1991). The paradox is that the personality and characteristics of Thais should be viewed in the context of the collective rather than separately (Mulder, 2000) to obtain a better understanding of how Thai culture can relate to learner-centeredness as a language learning approach. If classes were to act in a learner-centered way collectively, then it is possible that it would be socially acceptable for both teacher and students to adopt a new and unfamiliar pedagogy.

As mentioned earlier, Mulder (1979) states that the Thai people have their reasons for acting as they do in certain situations and are conscious of these reasons, which is why

there has been so much confusion over this subject when western academics attempt to analyse Thai culture. For example, he believes that social order and regulations take precedence over the law of the land which gives the appearance to outsiders of what Embree (1950) would call a loosely structured society. This aspect of Thai culture was highlighted by Gannon & Pillai (2013) when they stated that Thai people follow far fewer rules than other authority-ranking cultures as they are at the very end of what Triandis & Gelfand (1998) would call looseness. An outsider looking in can see no structure at all. It is precisely contradictions such as this that will be investigated to show the relationship between Thai culture, learner-centeredness and the learning and teaching of English in north-eastern Thailand.

According to Redmond (1998), Thai people still have the sense of being one homogeneous group due to the promotion of nationalism dating back to the Pibulsongkram era of the 1930s to the 1950s. In addition, the hierarchical relationships in position is compounded by the membership of groups, such as teachers and students, result in the expectations and suppositions of these groups being very stereotypical and resulting in what Mulder (1996, p. 143) calls a “self-fulfilling hypothesis”, where people live up to their perceived image. There is a fine balance between Thai social rules and personal freedoms resulting in Thailand remaining a comparatively homogeneous and adaptable country (Redmond, 1998).

The value that Thai people give to saving face and protection of their ego plays an important part in their daily lives. When children are growing up, many hours are spent at school, which is the context of this current study. These Thai character traits can be used to describe how learner-centeredness is used in the classroom by being linked to Hofstede’s (1986) cross-cultural learning situations and four cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980) and form an integral part of this study as there is the possibility that face-saving strategies

and perpetuation of ego may play a part in the classroom interaction when implementing learner-centeredness due to high Power Distance and strong Uncertainty Avoidance dimensions (Hofstede, 1980).

In summary, Thai culture was examined predominantly focusing on aspects of face (Persons, 2008) and the nine Thai values according to Komin (1991). Social regulations and order take priority over the law of the land (Mulder, 1979) giving the impression that Thailand is a loosely structured society (Embree, 1950), when in fact it is not (Triandis & Gelfand, 1998). Therefore, in my study I will be looking at the suppression of feelings and the ability to speak out of Thai pupils from a dual perspective, that of the dictates of Thai culture and as a reaction to the implementation of student-centered learning.

2.3 Second Language Acquisition

Saville-Troike (2012) defines SLA as how people learn another language after first having learned their first one growing up as a child; the process of learning that language, and the study of the people themselves. This involves a large area of language learning situations, different learner traits and learning/teaching conditions, which are important as background to this investigation.

Since the 1960s, the study of SLA has grown into many sub-fields to such an extent that much of the research does not directly address pedagogical issues (Ellis, 1997). An example of one of these areas is Chomsky's (1957) Universal Grammar (UG) which takes a cognitive view of language in that language reflects what goes on in the mind (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). It is a theory that uses linguistic principles and boundaries on the formation of grammar across different languages as a natural biological process (VanPatten & Williams, 2015), stressing linguistics rather than pedagogy (Gass, 1989). The emphasis of UG is on linguistics; whereas the focus of this current research is more to

do with praxis, sustained by linguistic theory. If general linguistic theory is understood by teachers, then pedagogy could be enhanced to assist students in their SLA.

Ellis (1986) put forward a framework for studying SLA which involves linguistic input, situational factors, learner differences, learner processes and linguistic output, to obtain a better understanding of what SLA is. His framework was developed to show how input, internal processing and linguistic output are related to each other. These different areas are all connected and explain how students acquire a second or foreign language, what learners learn and why some students are more successful than others. To understand the many areas in this field, Saville-Troike (2012) details how SLA came from both linguistics and psychology, allowing for four different strands for researchers. For example, linguists concentrate on the similarities and contrasts between languages that are learned, looking at performance and competence at various stages of the acquisition process. Psychologists are more concerned with brain processes and the mental processes of acquisition. The sociolinguists emphasise communicative competence and the linguistic performance of the learner and the social psychologist regards the social setting of where learning takes place, the interaction, social motivation, identity and the group dynamics.

To explain further, the situational context is the English language classroom, where both teacher and students share the same first language. This research will have young children aged from six to thirteen as participants and it is important to understand their cognitive ability when they are asked questions and interact as part of this research and in their classroom environment. Ellis (1986) believes that the learner's L1 plays an important part in second language acquisition. Piaget believed that the demonstration of intelligence starts before children learn their first language giving it the name Sensori-motor Intelligence (Piaget & Inhelder, 1969). As the name implies, children's actions are demonstrated by a sensori-motor coordination of their actions without thinking. For this research, Piaget's

theory of intellectual development regarding education is extremely important as it explains how child language and thought differ from those of adults in that they need to manipulate what they have so that they can learn. Students are participants in this research and it is essential to understand that they are learning at their best when they are learning just above their experience level (Dewey, 1938), too difficult and they will lose interest. This idea was taken forward by Krashen (1985) and is explained in more detail in the following paragraphs.

Piaget believed that a child's thought progresses in stages and that each stage can be enhanced by talk, argument and debate at school (Ginsburg & Oppen, 1969); however, Vygotsky (1978) had the belief that when a child is growing up, understanding and reasoning are a natural occurrence which takes place without having to be influenced by schooling (Vygotsky, 1978). Lightbrow & Spada (2013) show how Krashen detailed the way learners acquire language, much the same as children learn their first language; however, with an important difference, by paying attention to rules and form learners are able to learn, rather than just acquire.

This can be explained by Krashen's (1982) Monitor Model which was influenced by Chomsky's (1957) Universal Grammar and first language acquisition theory. Krashen (1985) believes that acquisition and learning are two different disciplines. Acquisition is regarded as being like when children subconsciously learn their first language via natural interaction as the learner communicates, whereas learning is the conscious effort to focus on form and learn linguistic rules of the second or foreign language in a classroom setting (Mitchell, et al., 2013). This Acquisition-learning Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985) relates to learner-centered teaching in that there is a requirement for the language to be communicated naturally outside of the classroom setting for acquisition to take place. Krashen's Monitor Hypothesis (1982) explains how acquisition and learning are related, in

that the acquired language is monitored or edited by the learning that takes place. This has implications for this research as learner-centered pedagogy relies not only on language use outside the classroom as an opportunity to learn, but also the way that students and teachers interact in the classroom as they learn (Blumberg, 2009).

In addition, Krashen's (1985) Natural Order Hypothesis and Input Hypothesis explain how there is an innate sequence as to how people learn languages which may not follow what is learned in the classroom. Whilst moving along their developmental pathway, learners receive comprehensible input at their current level as well as linguistic knowledge which will assist them in reaching the next level ($i + 1$) as they process the information. If the level is too high or too low, then acquisition will not take place (Mitchell, et al., 2013). This is not to be confused with the Zone of Proximal Development (Vygotsky, 1986), which will be explained in more detail, later in this chapter. Comprehensible Input (Krashen, 1985) may play an important part in Thai education and in education in other countries where there is a no-fail policy (Halligan, 2011). When students progress through the grades without achieving the designated standards, teachers will be teaching at the required level for the grade in line with the curriculum requirements, which may be too high for the students who have not mastered previous years' study. If this were the case, then $i + 1$ will not take place. This could be especially significant for Thai students learning English as there is a culture of students never failing examinations (Halligan, 2011), so it is difficult to gauge whether a student has had the English language learning and teaching their age and grade level indicate. Hedge (2000) asks whether this kind of situation could result in some students not having enough English language acquisition or learning for their prescribed level as they move through the years. To compound this problem, teachers are faced with mixed ability classes due to having to combine small classes in smaller schools, as in this current research context.

The Affective Filter Hypothesis (Krashen, 1982) follows on from the previous two hypotheses in that for comprehensible input to be accepted, students must be receptive to the information being supplied. For this hypothesis, students with a high affective filter may not be able to receive and process the information for emotional or motivational reasons, resulting in $i + 1$ not materialising. This begs the question as to whether, as may be the case with this investigation, there are any affective filters in place when a teacher uses a different pedagogy when teaching English from what is traditionally used in Thai classrooms, especially when compared to other subjects the students are learning. In addition, if the students do not think that English is relevant for them, they may not be engaged in the content as it is not used in their daily lives, resulting in content not facilitating future learning (Blumberg, 2009). One further context that should also be explored is whether a high Power Distance dimension (Hofstede, 1986) that exists between teachers and students in the classroom would affect the affective filter when teachers give an answer and students accept the answer without understanding why it is correct. By accepting the answer and moving on without understanding, would this not also be classed as an affective filter?

The Input Hypothesis was a contributing factor to the development of the communicative approach to language teaching which superseded the audiolingual method and formed the groundwork for research by Long (1983) into the changes in the structure and management in conversational interactions as well as linguistic adjustments that native speakers make with non-native speakers in those same exchanges. These adjustments are important because they appear necessary for comprehensible input and language acquisition to take place, especially for low-level learners. Interaction in the classroom is an important aspect of this research, where Thai teachers are teaching a foreign language to students from the same culture. Long (1996) expanded his Interactional Hypothesis by explaining how corrective feedback to the structure of the L2 could contribute to language learning based

on the input learners receive and how selective their attention and the ability to process the information is conducted (Mitchell, et al., 2013). This corrective feedback forms an integral part of learner-centered teaching as this interaction between teachers and students, as well as between students facilitates learning (Blumberg, 2009). McDonough (2004) believes that students also benefit from negative feedback; however, they may not believe that working in pairs and small groups benefits their language learning. This could be due to context playing an important part in how second languages can be acquired and learned.

Leading on from the Input Hypothesis and the Interactional Hypothesis, Swain (1995) proposed an Output Hypothesis, that has three functions. They were to act as consciousness awareness, hypothesis testing and metalinguistic functions (Mitchell, et al., 2013). The idea behind these functions was that learners would benefit from the production of the target language as there was more to learning a language than just comprehension, by learners noticing that they might not have all the information they need to use the target language, by trying out their newfound ideas and reflecting on the language use taking part in their interactions (Pilar, et al., 2013). One area that would be of concern in this research, would be when dealing with passive students who are possibly reticent to produce any output in class for cultural reasons (Komin, 1991) or because they were not motivated to do so as they were not engaged with the activities (Blumberg, 2009).

VanPatten & Williams (2015) produced a condensed list of observations to assist in the explanation of SLA theories. They believe that it is important for the learner to be exposed to input and that much of SLA happens incidentally as they focus on communicative interaction. It is important that students are using English and interacting in their classrooms, as learners obtain unconscious knowledge as they learn, so they have more knowledge than what has been received as input and their output can be predicted if there is structure to their acquisition process. This relates to the Input Hypothesis and Natural

Order Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985), the Interactional Hypothesis (Long, 1996), the Monitor Model (Krashen, 1982) and the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1995) discussed earlier in this section.

Moreover, learners develop at different rates and many do not achieve their desired native-speaker levels of ability, much to the consternation of Thai teachers of English (Boriboon, 2013). Language teachers have to accept that sounding like a native speaker of English is not required, as they and their students do not have goals relating to membership and identity with native speaker communities (Saville-Troike, 2012). Added to this, learners develop pronunciation, lexicon, pragmatics and syntax at different rates due to the various sub-systems of the L2 developing at different speeds (VanPatten & Williams, 2015). This may be relevant for the Thai teachers of English as well, as many see themselves as English language learners.

Importantly, VanPatten & Williams (2015) state that research has shown that some aspects of instruction is damaging and slows down the acquisition process. This is an area for investigation in this research, for example how learner-centered teaching is implemented in the classroom, whether it is accepted by teachers and students and whether the methods are appropriate for student learning goals (Blumberg, 2009). In addition, when asking learners to produce output using a different teaching approach, it is possible that it has an effect on SLA, especially if the output is mediated by the reluctance to answer questions produced by Thai culture (Komin, 1991), as this could act as an Affective Filter (Krashen, 1982).

The preceding paragraphs illustrate that there are associations between L2 learning and classroom interactions which have clear implications for pedagogy. In addition, learners are expected to use the language to acquire it. By looking at interactions in the classroom (Long, 1996) and investigating how these interactions are affected by learner-centered

teaching and mediated by Thai culture, it may be possible to have a clearer picture as to how learner-centered teaching is implemented in north-eastern classrooms in Thailand. Hofstede (1986) believes that teacher/student interaction is ingrained in the culture of a given society resulting in the possibility of cross-cultural learning situations becoming problematic. This is explained in more detail in the data analysis section of the Methodology chapter of this research.

The situational factors concern whether the language is learned in the classroom or whether it is acquired in the natural environment around the learner. Schumann (1986) details nine factors of which social and affective factors have been grouped to form what he calls acculturation. These social factors play a significant role in second language acquisition and when considered in tandem with the Thai cultural aspects surrounding the learning of a foreign language, could be seen to play a possible role in the learning of English in that country in a learner-centered way.

The teachers and students participating in this research are from the same community, where there may be a lack of understanding as to the reasons why English has to be learned in the first place, due to it not being part of people's daily lives (Draper, 2012a) and the added factor that there might be some difficulties in adapting to learner-centered teaching and learning culturally. For example, a major factor contributing to SLA is whether you identify with the target community and how self-conscious you are (Saville-Troike, 2012). If learners do not identify with English language learning and are self-conscious about learning the language, they may have difficulty in acquiring that language. Schumann's (1986) acculturation model explains the social distance to a language or culture learners can place themselves when learning a second or foreign language. If students or teachers for that matter do not identify with the language, their Affective Filter (Krashen, 1982) may be raised affecting SLA.

Howatt & Smith (2014) explain how the Communicative Period (1970-present) has the core concern of aiming for real life communication using Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) and Task-based Language Teaching. This is particularly relevant for this research as the 1999 Education Act (Office of the National Education Commission, 2012) requires teachers to change to learner-centered teaching in a communicative way. Breen & Candlin (1980) explain how the roles of the teacher and students was to change whilst using CLT, where the teacher was to become a facilitator as well as an interdependent participant in the learning that was taking place and the students were to take a more active part as a negotiator between the learning process, the learning product and with other students. CLT was to become important in making communicative competence a major aim of language learning as well as instigating procedures for the teaching of the four skills considering that language and communication are interdependent. If English is not used as part of everyday life (Draper, 2012a), this may prove difficult for Thai students to practice in a real setting due to the lack of opportunities to learn, which is highlighted by Blumberg (2009) as an element of the Balance of Power to describe learner-centered teaching.

Moving from teacher-centered rote memorisation to learner-centered communicative activities involves teachers and students sharing more responsibility for the learning that takes place. Savignon (2001) believes that students are active participants in the negotiation of meaning and that the collaborative nature of CLT leads to the interpretation, and expression of meaning too, for students to have the experience of communication. This communicative competence comprises of four elements, grammatical, discourse, strategic and socio-cultural competences. These four competences put the emphasis clearly on the learner, rather than the teacher (Savignon, 2001), especially sociocultural competence which incorporates the social rules of language use. For this to happen in the Thai English language classroom, the teacher must relinquish some control to allow students to take a

more active part in what is going on, by being more learner-centered (Aaronsohn, 1996).

Antón (1999) believes that teachers should allow students to be more involved in the negotiation of meaning, the linguistic forms being used and how to behave in the classroom when learner-centered teaching is taking place.

Richards & Rodgers (2014) believe that when defining CLT, language is a way of expressing meaning to allow interaction and communication. In addition, they state that the language will show both functional and communicative uses and this is completed by having the primary units of language as functional and communicative meaning in discourse. Communicative learning based on the individual, their needs, their style of learning and their individual goals is a part of CLT and is commonly called learner-centered teaching (Applebee, 1974). The idea behind learner-centered teaching is that the learners play an important role in the ways lessons are taught, so that learning does not become a mirror image of the teaching that takes place. Learners who are successful find their own way and are assisted by the teachers who focus on the learner (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

In summary, the use of a socio-cultural framework, should allow for culture, identity, status and values to be studied to see how they affect Comprehensible Input (Krashen, 1985), Interactional Hypothesis (Long, 1996), Monitor Model (Krashen, 1982), and Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1995). To answer the research questions, this research will look at classroom interaction, group dynamics and motivation to investigate what is happening in the English language classroom regarding learner-centered teaching and SLA.

2.4 Learner-centeredness

Underhill (1989) explains how the influence of the humanistic movement in language learning played an important role in the evolution of learner-centered teaching, based on

methods such as Total Physical Response, Community Language Learning, the Silent Way and Suggestopedia. He details emergent themes from human learning and human nature based on work by Maslow (1970) and Rogers (1961) which explains humanistic psychology. These themes are high levels of health and well-being, the whole person, human motivation toward self-realisation, change and development, education as a life-long process, respect for everyone's individual experience, and self-empowerment. These themes are the basis of the process of how an individual learns in general, within the classroom and how they are taught. This idea that the process is the content was demonstrated by Aaronsohn (1996) in her investigation of one teacher and her struggles to be learner-centered. The tussle was between what the teacher believed was a good teacher and how to be a student-centered teacher. This was achieved by letting go of ownership of content and process, and focusing on the students.

Schweisfurth (2013a) defines learner-centered teaching as when students are given the chance to take charge of their content and learning processes depending on what they require, what interests them and their ability. Brindley & Bagshaw (1984) explain how teachers who have a learner-centered approach to teaching regard their practice. Student learning is arranging and categorising new experiences, with the teachers as a resource who can show that learning takes place everywhere, not just in the classroom. Teachers are to assist students to become autonomous learners, so that they can formulate their own ideas as to the L2 they are learning and modify their ideas as they learn.

Doyle (2011) believes that learner-centeredness is the best way to enhance student learning, as it affords the students the opportunity to be actively engaged in processing new information as there is no such thing as passive learning. Rather than listening to teachers' lecture, students need to be actively doing the work. Student-centered teaching is teaching where the focus is on the learners' interaction with content which is meaningful and easily

accessible as well as with other students, and where the teacher takes a supporting role as facilitator, due to the importance placed on the learning process that gives the students the chance of independence (Aaronsohn, 1996). There may be an argument that teachers who are student-centered in their approach should not automatically expect students who have only been exposed to teacher-centered learning to agree to a learning approach that could be counter to their experience; however, it would depend on whether there was the belief that students would benefit from gradually assuming more responsibility for their own learning (Lewis & Reinders, 2007).

Research by Gruber, Gelman & Ranganath (2014) resonates with the development of the learner-centered psychological principles developed by the American Psychological Association (APA) (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997) in that knowledge must be meaningful, an intentional process of constructing meaning from experience and information as well as linking it to past experiences. A variety of cognitive strategies are to be used including critical thinking and creativity including cultural and outside influences to construct knowledge. Phungphol (2005) states that there is a precise alignment between the learner-centered psychological principles established by APA and their Thai equivalents developed by the Thai Educational Reform Committee' supporting their universal use and more importantly, their use in Thailand.

The guiding principles of the APA with regard to learner-centeredness (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997) have been divided into four domains, cognitive and metacognitive factors, motivational and affective factors, developmental and social factors and individual difference factors (McCombs & Miller, 2007) which formed the basis of a collection of work edited by Lambert & McCombs (2000) and incorporated into a strategy by Blumberg (2009) detailing five dimensions of learner-centered teaching required to move away from teacher-centeredness. It is because of the close alignment

between the Thai and APA learner-centered psychological principles (Phungphol, 2005), that Blumberg's (2009) five dimensions of learner-centered teaching was adopted for this research. These five dimensions are the function of content, the role of the instructor, the responsibility for learning, the purposes and processes of assessment and the balance of power. These dimensions were introduced by Weimer (2002) and expanded upon by Blumberg (2009) to construct strategies in the form of grids to assess the amount of learner-centeredness taking place in the move from teacher-centered to learner-centered.

Blumberg (2009) explains that the contrasts between teacher-centered and learner-centered teaching are quite large and that an incremental approach to the transition from one to the other should be used to monitor the amount of learner-centeredness that is taking place over a period of time. This way teachers and their administrators can monitor the progress from teacher-centered to learner-centered teaching when implementing learner-centeredness into their classrooms.

For this investigation, the five dimensions of learner-centered teaching by Blumberg (2009) explained earlier in this section have been utilised into a grid to allow for easy annotation of the amount of learner-centered teaching taking place in the observed classrooms. The observation grids are contained at Appendix A. By using the grids during classroom observations, it may be possible to map the evolution from teacher-centered to learner-centered teaching by using the stages lower level of transitioning and higher level of transitioning. The lower level of transitioning demonstrates how there has been a move away from teacher-centered teaching and the higher level transition illustrates a level that is on the way to becoming learner-centered. This will form an integral part of this research.

In addition, Nunan (1997) explains how it is important to find out about the learning preferences of students when starting to teach in a learner way, for example, the topic

areas, out of class learning, and assessment. By understanding student preferences, it may be easier to provide context for the learners and create rapport in the classroom. This is also an important area of this research.

For learner-centeredness to take place teachers need to develop a class-centered approach to their English language teaching (Senior, 2002), so that students can give presentations, work in groups and have autonomy over their own learning (Nunan, 1988). Students, especially young students need to be supported in their learning (Wood, et al., 1976) and their learning needs to be scaffolded as they progress through their education (Senior, 2011) until they reach the ultimate goals of independence and autonomy (Beed, et al., 1991). This scaffolding is conducted by engaging the student, simplifying the task, keeping students on course, highlighting important features, controlling frustrations and demonstrating solutions for the task at hand (Wood, et al., 1976).

Nunan (1987) explains the concept of a weaker version of communicative activities, which includes more traditional patterns involving drills, error correction and grammar explanation, highlighting that the communicative classroom may not be very communicative at all. In this situation, it is the teachers who are the driving force for change from teacher-centered to learner-centered teaching. The results of Nunan's study illustrate how rudimentary level students can conduct communicative activities if they can bring their own personal methods and experiences to the communicative activities taking place. This is important when you bear in mind Thai culture values personal relationships over task completion (Komin, 1990) in the context of this present research.

The move from teacher-centered to learner-centered teaching involves different values and opinions which must be considered when selecting content and the learning experience (Nunan, 1991). Kullman (1998) asks whether learner-centeredness, autonomy and self-

direction can be employed in all settings, as there could be a clash of values, either political or sociocultural. For the purposes of this study, English language teaching which is more learner-centered will be characterized as giving students the opportunity for dynamic control over the content and process of their learning, dependent on their needs, aptitudes and interests (Schweisfurth, 2013a). It is important to consider that due to time constraints, it is impossible for Thai teachers to teach everything their students require in the classroom. The precious time they have must be used effectively to teach what the students believe they need (Nunan, 1988). However, the problem may arise that there are limited opportunities to use English outside the classroom in line with learner-centered teaching (Blumberg, 2009), which may affect the acquisition process (Krashen, 1985).

In addition, Schweisfurth (2013b) elaborates on her learner-centered definition by explaining three justificatory narratives; cognitive, emancipation and preparation. The cognitive narrative is in line with the thinking of Vygotsky (1978) and Bruner (1966); intrinsic motivation is stimulated in the learner so that they are engaged with the cognitive learning process. This is in direct contrast to teacher-centered learning. Furthermore, the emancipation narrative emphasises learner autonomy as being important reiterating Dewey (1916) and Freire's (1972) ideals of personal freedoms for the learner in the educational context. Allowing students more freedom to satisfy their curiosity is once again in conflict with teacher-centeredness. Moreover, the preparative narrative develops soft skills and a culture of inquiry which are the foundation of a successful knowledge economy. This last narrative, preparation is particularly relevant for Thailand as education is seen by many as an integral part of economic growth and what is perceived as the importance of education in the first place (von Feigenblatt, et al., 2010). The Thai education system was blamed as being a contributing factor to the Thai financial crisis of 1996 and so education reform is a catalyst for global competitiveness (Phungphol, 2005).

Firmly based in constructivist learning theory developed by cognitive psychologists such as Piaget and Bruner as well as socio-cultural learning theorist Vygotsky and pragmatist Dewey, learner-centeredness is an example of how students can construct their own knowledge rather than receive it in a passive way. Rote learning and memorisation was to be replaced by learner-centered teaching by the enactment of the 1999 Education Act (Kantamara, et al., 2006); however, nearly twenty years later and progress towards national implementation of learner-centered English language teaching has been slow (Hallinger, 2010).

When teaching English to speakers of other languages, an ever-increasing number of countries are adopting a more learner-centered approach to their teaching. The momentum for this change to a more learner-centered way of teaching emanates from local, national and global stakeholders (Schweisfurth, 2013b). Some examples of non-western countries adopting this western pedagogy include Saudi Arabia (Al-Mekhlafi & Nagaratnam, 2012), South Africa (Brodie, et al., 2002) and China (Cortazzi & Jin, 1996), showing learner-centeredness being adopted by a diverse distribution of countries around the globe. However, this is not without some problems.

There is also some criticism of learner-centered teaching. Wen (2016) laments the fact that teaching in a learner-centered way is not capable of making the distinction between formal school instruction and the informal type of learning which comes from daily routine. Wen is not alone in this thinking (Kirschner, et al., 2006). Wen (2016) adds that approaches from the west stress the use of language; however, there is not enough attention given to increasing the existing language system of the students.

In Indonesia, their test-orientated system of education meant that teachers chose to teach for the test rather than use a more communicative approach to language teaching. This coupled with a lack of teaching materials and the continued use of multiple choice and reading comprehension questions was counterproductive to the communicative activities that were desired (Zein, 2017).

Thailand has decided to implement learner-centered English language teaching; however, the implementation has stagnated across the country with surprisingly little regional variations (Fry & Bi, 2013). Rojanapanich (2012) believes that Thailand's strong patronage system, the glorified pursuit of wealth and unconditional respect for elders as models of authority has worked against recent educational reforms in this globalised world.

As explained previously, implementing learner-centeredness in developing countries is fraught with problems. Research by Schweisfurth (2011) asks for the voices of young learners to be heard from the developing countries adopting learner-centeredness as it is sorely missed. For an effective learner-centered curriculum to be developed, input from learners is required at every stage of the developmental process in collaboration with teachers and curriculum developers (Nunan, 2004). However, young learners with little experience of language learning are not capable of contributing at the curriculum planning level. What happens is that teachers will make most of the choices at the beginning for these young learners (Nunan, 1988). This could produce difficulties for teachers in countries that have different cultural values and beliefs who want to involve their students in the curriculum process, and explains why student preferences are an important part of this current study.

Hongladarom (2004) states that the move from teacher-centered rote learning and memorization to learner-centered English language teaching, where the teacher does not

take centre stage, has proven to be difficult to implement in Thailand. He believes that this is because Thais see the acquisition of knowledge as something to be possessed, to enhance social status rather than a process of betterment. Mulder (1996) adds that once gathered, this knowledge is stored and protected as it means the holder has enhanced status, but unfortunately there is no impetus for further enquiry. This has been confirmed by Komin (1990) where she states that knowledge is acquired to advance socially, emphasizing the form over content orientation. Mounier & Tangchuang (2010) warn that by adopting learner-centeredness in Thailand, teachers may embrace the pedagogy whilst distancing themselves from the knowledge that needs to be imparted, resulting in conformism and a parody of what learner-centeredness is really concerned with.

In summary, learner-centeredness is regarded as students taking control of their learning and course content in line with their interests, ability and their needs (Schweisfurth, 2013a). Blumberg's (2009) five dimensions of learner-centered teaching and their transitions will be used to analyse the data, as they are based on the learner-centered psychological principles developed by the APA (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997) and are aligned with learner-centered psychological principles in Thailand (Phungphol, 2005).

2.5 Sociocultural Theory

Language and culture rely on each other and combine to make something that is alive (Jiang, 2000). If the methods or approaches used to teach a new language are based on a different cultural approach, the teachers will have to adapt (Tudor, 2013) as well as the students if the implementation of a new pedagogy such as learner-centeredness is to succeed. A sociocultural approach allows for the complexities of the classroom environment and the Thai government's learner-centered policy toward English language teaching, mediated by Thai culture to be investigated fully.

Sociocultural Theory (SCT) is defined as the understanding of how the human consciousness is derived from the dialectical unity of our brain (biological) and outside stimuli whilst undertaking social activities (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014). By using a sociocultural lens, it is possible to investigate how children acquire mental programs by being born with unconscious values, which are gradually manipulated by outside stimuli influenced by family, school and work as they age (Hofstede, 2008). These environmental factors are a great influence and can take place in schools, as in this research. To implement a learner-centered approach teachers have to engage students in socioculturally meaningful activities, so that the learners obtain control over their mental activity and begin to function independently (Zuengler & Miller, 2006).

Ratner (2002) explains that SCT is the process of how the brain functions using a mediation process which is organized around cultural artefacts, activities and concepts. This is based on work by Vygotsky (1987) into how human beings are mediated by physical and symbolic tools, which allows humans to use what they have, to make new artefacts to regulate and control their behaviour in the contexts of family life, peer group settings and schools (Lantolf, et al., 2015). These tools illustrate the importance of language as a means of facilitation in human mental activity and how learning is mediated socially by interaction with peers and experts (Mitchell, et al., 2013).

SCT or social constructivism is an analytical tool used to investigate teaching and learning. This may be dialogue between a learner and someone who is more experienced, for example, interaction between teachers and students in the classroom, using learning materials and realia, culturally organised for learning to take place (Richards & Rodgers, 2014), as well as interactions between students as they learn. These interactions in the classroom, whether they are teacher to student or between students, may be problematic

(Hofstede, 1986) when learner-centered teaching has been introduced, as mentioned previously in this chapter.

Wertsch (1991) describes a sociocultural approach to the mind, in which he studies the mental functioning of people as they socially interact with each other within the contexts of culture, history and institutions. He believes that social interaction in small groups as well as social structures, such as institutions and cultural settings should be studied together, as they are both socially situated. This socially shared cognition is an important part of this research as language use, organization and structure are the main means of mediation and the developmental process takes place through participating in cultural, linguistic and historical settings (Lantolf & Thorne, 2007). In addition, there could be a shared cognitive challenge for both teachers and learners (Hofstede, 1986), when learner-centered teaching is implemented in the English language classroom. There are two central tenets of sociocultural theory that make it particularly appropriate for the examination of my research questions, they are complexity; and social dimension/mediation (Ratner, 2002).

Complexity allows for all the intricacies of the learner-centered classroom context to be examined, the historical background, what happens inside and outside the classroom, the complex dynamics of interactions between teachers and students and the centrality of Thai culture as an overriding feature of this cultural setting. Moreover, Lantolf & Poehner (2014), explain that Vygotsky (1997) saw education as being grounded in science and that teachers were to be considered scientists as well as practitioners and that their job was not only to transfer knowledge from teacher to students, but to create the right environment for students to learn. In other words, teacher centeredness is the transfer of knowledge from teacher to learner, whereas the idea of learner-centeredness is to create the right environment for students to take more responsibility for their learning. In addition, by motivating and offering support to the learner, Vygotsky believed that the teachers'

teaching role is reduced in importance and replaced by the personality of the teacher (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014). This an important part of this research, the interaction between teacher and students, their shared culture and the use of learner-centered teaching originating from the west with its inbuilt pedagogical traits that may be culturally different for both teacher and learner. For learner-centeredness to take place, teachers require enthusiasm and inspiration to nourish their students through facilitation, even though the teachers are individuals with their own sets of beliefs, which they bring with them to the classroom.

Individuals are mediated by their surroundings and it is extremely difficult to understand other peoples' surrounding if you are not part of it. (Frambach, et al., 2014). Vygotsky's position was explained and developed further by many academics. For example, Lantolf & Pavlenko (1995) stated that human development is intermingled with socioculturally constructed mediational means. This mediation was used by Halliday (1985), who introduced systemic functional grammar to explain how cultural and social features interact and mediate different language systems giving the academic community social aspects of the language through social and cultural interaction to gain meaning and sociocultural focus was the way to underscore the fact (Bass-Dolivan, 2011). The interaction between teachers and students and between students is a significant aspect of this research that sociocultural investigation can study, taking into account possible problems involving cross cultural learning situations (Hofstede, 1986), the scaffolding and mediation provided by the Zone of Proximal Development (ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978) where learners can be supported by the teacher as an expert (Aljaafreh & Lantolf, 1994), and also by their peers as novices (Ohta, 2001).

It is important to point out at this stage that the ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978) and Krashen's (1985) *i + 1* Input Hypothesis, although strikingly similar to some observers, are in fact

different. According to Dunn and Lantolf (1998), ZPD views learners as collective cultural agents and $i + 1$ sees them as self-directed entities with multiple variables. This is because sociocultural theory such as ZPD is not a language acquisition theory (Kington, 2001). They can be brought together in a learner-centered way, by implementing a zone, where specific skills are to be learned, based on the outcomes required by the curriculum and input is selected by the learners, under the watchful eye of the teacher, to allow for ZPD and $i + 1$ at the same time. This has been explained to some degree by Davila (2017); however, Krashen quite rightly does not agree with her definition of $i + 1$.

It is central to this research to emphasise the social dimension and mediation aspects as teachers are observed teaching their classes, implementing the government directives of learner-centered teaching even though some teachers have not been trained in this approach nor do they have the necessary English language and English language teaching skills. Hall (2000) states that imposing solutions from outside, in this case, learner-centered teaching and communicative activities being implemented by the Thai government, is not the best way to ensure implementation. It would be better to cultivate local practices that are homegrown and more acceptable in the local contexts in line with national interests (Schweisfurth, 2013a). As previously explained, this is prevalent in Thailand's education system, as it is assumed that orders from above are for the compliance of all concerned (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2000), especially when you take into account the specific nature of Thai culture (Redmond, 1998); however, Thailand's school directors need to put forward these changes in a way that their teachers can understand and implement (Hallinger, 2004). For this to happen, they may have to deal with this situation, by mediating the policy of learner-centeredness and enacting it in the way everyone can understand.

Participation in everyday activities is the process and the product of learning (Zuengler & Miller, 2006). Learners are active in the construction of their own learning environments, first socially (inter-mental) and then individually (intra-mental) (Mitchell, et al., 2013). This includes the English language classroom as it is central to learning English in the Thai context. The reason for this is because school forms a major part of a student's life, especially in the early years as children spend so much time there. Learning is a socially mediated process as students develop the mental tools they require adapt to what is taking place in the classroom (Mitchell, et al., 2013). It is a place where early values and beliefs and what it means to be Thai are introduced (von Feigenblatt, et al., 2010), and it is where English language learning is initiated from an early age. In rural Thailand, there are very few opportunities to learn English outside the classroom as English is a foreign language and is limited to classroom use with very few real opportunities to develop English language competence (von Feigenblatt, et al., 2010). English is taught from Grade One (primary one) according to Thai government directives; however, this may not be considered the top priority for people in the northeast of Thailand as they may perceive that they have more important concerns than learning English, for example, the national tests show that Thai language, social studies, science and mathematics are also in need of improvement (Mala & Fernquest, 2017).

The English language classroom is the setting where students' mental and physical behaviour is surrendered to others (their teachers or classmates) for a period of time. This type of mediation is explained by Miller (2011) as the interception of self by others. This is also in line with Vygotsky's (1986) ZPD which indicates how much an individual may be able to do in the future on their own after working in collaboration with others (Zuengler & Miller, 2006). For students to be allowed the freedom to learn in a learner-centered way, it is up to the teacher to prepare the best environment for the child to learn (Dewey, 2010). By using Vygotsky's (1986) ZPD as a focal point, investigations can take place into the

space where the difference between a child's actual mental age and the level reached by assisted problem solving (scaffolding) becomes the ideal space for learning to take place. For students to have their interest stimulated there needs to be an interface between a student's current cognitive structure and new experiences for the development of understanding to happen (Ginsburg & Oppen, 1969).

Engeström (1987) believed that the most important cognitive activity by humans takes place in social and material environments, which includes the classroom. Sociocultural theory includes praxis-based research (intervention and creating the right environment for human development) as well as research and the understanding of the human developmental processes (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014). In the classroom setting, this equates to students in the classroom discussing and solving problems, with the teacher as the expert facilitating the activities. This sociocultural setting was investigated by Hofstede (1986) as he considered that teacher/student and student/student interaction is deeply embedded in society and he paid attention to the differences in the social positions and the processes of the teachers and students in given societies and cultures.

Sociocultural theory was chosen as a framework for this study to consider the multifaceted nature of education including its cultural orientation as customs and conventions sometimes interfere (positively and negatively) with the ability of students to learn (Pea, 1987). Under the umbrella of a sociocultural approach, cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980), classroom interactions (Hofstede, 1986) and dimensions of learner-centeredness by Blumberg (2009) will be investigated to see the relationship between Thai culture and the learning and teaching of English in north-eastern Thailand. It is hoped that they provide insight into similarities and differences between policy ideas adopted from other contexts (in this case learner-centered learning from the west) and the Thai context (teacher-centered learning in transition to learner-centeredness). Zuengler & Miller (2006) believe

that by using a sociocultural approach, researchers can be more aware and sensitive to the type of classroom communities that learners require and that is important for this research when looking to see how learner-centeredness plays a part in that community. By looking at this mediation, it is possible to develop an understanding of the way teachers attempt to teach using learner-centered teaching according to government policy, how they are aware of the policy and can implement it and become self-regulated agents (Miller, 2011).

In summary, sociocultural theory, which views learning as something that is stimulated by outside influences when taking part in social activities. Guided participation by a more knowledgeable other will allow a learner to develop the new knowledge and skills over a period of time (Rogoff, 1990). This allows humans to control and regulate their mental functions and involves mediation of self and others using artefacts, symbols, music and language to create higher order thinking as part of human consciousness during social interaction (Lantolf & Poehner, 2014).

The literature that was reviewed in this chapter fell into five main categories, culture, Thai culture, SLA, learner-centeredness, and Sociocultural Theory. The review highlighted potential gaps in the available literature concerning how Thai teachers of English understand and implement learner-centered teaching in their classrooms, and the relationship between learner-centeredness, SLA and culture, to answer the research questions. For example, under a sociocultural framework, if students are not engaged by the content during learner-centered teaching (Blumberg, 2009), they might deploy their Affective Filter (Krashen, 1982), which may illustrate whether teachers and students have the cognitive ability to adapt to different pedagogy (Hofstede, 1986). In addition, interactions between students, teachers and content (Blumberg, 2009) may give rise to corrective feedback through interaction (Long, 1996) and differences in student/student and teacher/student interaction patterns (Hofstede, 1986).

This example shows how a sociocultural approach, where every day concepts are shaped on the basis of concrete experiences and are based mostly on simplifications from superficial features of entities (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008, p. 5), can encompass learner-centeredness, SLA and cultural dimensions, whilst analysing cognitive ability, different pedagogy, corrective feedback and interaction patterns in the classroom environment.

The top-down approach of the entity view of culture allows for cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980) and dimensions of learner-centered teaching (Blumberg, 2009), as well as problematic cross-cultural learning situations (Hofstede, 1986) to be analysed in conjunction with the more incremental bottom-up approach that sociocultural theory provides where the social interactions, dimensions, and group relations unfold in the complexity of the English language classroom, mediated by Thai character traits (Komin, 1991) and elements of face (Persons, 2008). This is where the theoretical domain meets the empirical realm (Lantolf & Poehner, 2008).

Using both top-down and bottom-up approaches is based on a theory where entity theorists may well believe that traits are fixed; however, the effects of these traits on behavior could be comparatively small when they are equated to influential contexts and situations (Plaks, et al., 2009). The context in this investigation is where learner-centered teaching is implemented in the English language classroom and how it is mediated by Thai culture.

This study is using the top-down and bottom-up approaches due to the strong influence that Thai culture has on the behavior of Thai people. This has been explained by Mulder (1979), who has researched extensively about the Thai people. He states that Thai people value the rules of society above the laws of the land, illustrating the powerful influence that Thai culture could play in this research. Rather than relegating social structure as a

backdrop for social action (Holliday, 2009), Mulder (1979) believes it is all important. Lantolf & Thorne (2006, p. 29) state that sociocultural practices and culturally built semiotic artifacts mediate the higher forms of the mental functions of human beings, and when internalized, they serve to give a person the ability to control their biological mental processes.

Chapter 3 Methodology

This chapter outlines the methodology of this study. I first explain my research position, then I will explain the methods and rationale for using qualitative research methods: semi-structured interviews and classroom observations. In addition, my ethical considerations are explained and finally, I detail how the collected data was analysed.

3.1 My Position in the Research Process

In this section, I explore my research position in this project and the ways in which I am both an insider and outsider and how I have attempted to negotiate these roles during the research process.

My aim is to report what Bloome (2012) would describe as everyday life and culture in the selected social group. For this investigation, the social group is the Thai teachers and their students in the English language classroom and I am using observations and interviews to provide a detailed picture of what happens in their classrooms in north-eastern Thailand.

This qualitative research aims to provide a realistic understanding of how learner-centered teaching has been implemented in the English language classroom under a cultural lens.

The sociocultural approach I am using assumes that by conducting research in English language learning and teaching, I am an insider as I have been teaching English in Thailand for fifteen years, which has included training potential English teachers and continuing this training once they have graduated. Over time, I have earned the trust of Thai teachers of English in general and have built a reputation for understanding the daily problems that teachers face, demonstrated in the presentations that I have given in national and international conferences and publicised using a weekly column in a popular English language daily newspaper, the Bangkok Post for three and a half years. Having said that, I may also be an outsider by some of the participants (teachers and students) as I am not

Thai, I am male when most teachers are female, and so may not be considered one of them, especially as I do not teach in their schools.

To explain this further, it is important to understand that differing personal backgrounds and language histories (how English was learned), teacher education experiences and work in different contexts shape the mental lives and practices of English language teachers (Kubanyiova & Feryok, 2015). Because of this, I am an insider and an outsider at the same time depending on the participants and stakeholder perspectives. I am also an insider and outsider to varying degrees depending on the task at hand as well as my perceptions and the perceptions of others. This could be classified as being an insider and outsider at the same time in a multiple series of parallel continuums (Labaree, 2002), depending on the context and perceptions of those concerned. To this end, the location, time, participants and the phenomenon being investigated dictate where I am on different sets of axis on a multiple dimensioned continuum along the insider/outsider dichotomy (Mercer, 2007). On reflection, I find myself as having refined shades of insiderism and outsiderism (Hellawell, 2006) depending on the aspect of research I am covering.

I am looking at this investigation from etic and emic viewpoints. The idea behind looking at this study from both an etic and emic standpoint is to look at the data but from two differing positions (Pike, 1967); an observer's viewpoint as the researcher, investigating the learner-centeredness of the classroom, with all the trappings of my own culture based in the west, and the values and beliefs of the teachers and students that are part of that learning process in the Thai context. Furthermore, the positioning that is made has direct consequences as to how the research was conducted, for example, theories, methods and the object of the investigation (Berry, 1969). As already explained, a sociocultural approach to this research was chosen to reflect both the etic and emic standpoints, even though Harris (1976) believes that some academics would have us believe that etics are the

emics of the observer, which in my view, is not the case. For this research, using definitions by Harris (1976), analysing the interviews of teachers and students will explain what goes on in the mental life of the participants and is culturally specific (emic). By observing the teachers and students in the classroom, we can view real living individuals as they are in actual life, and if what is viewed is outside the minds of the actors (observer and participants), this is cross-culturally valid (etic). The idea that etics is nothing more than the emics of the observer is only true if the researcher regards what is viewed through their own cultural lens.

I have a background in education in Thailand as a teacher. This plays an important part in my approach to this research, as do my assumptions, objectivity and biases concerning my understanding of Thai culture and learner-centeredness from a westerner's perspective and my affinity with the people from north-eastern Thailand. For these reasons, I use a reflexive approach in that I try to anticipate problems, biases and as a researcher, my personal values and beliefs to produce an honest and ethical account of the research taking place, as recommended by Burgess, Sieminski & Arthur (2006). A section on ethical considerations appears later in this chapter. The possible negative biases are the perceived thoughts and beliefs I have concerning the research questions due to previous observations, comments and discussions that have taken place over several years, which should not contribute to this research as it was not approached from a formal academic point of view.

3.2 Methods of Data Collection

This study employs three qualitative methods to give insight into the relationship between Thai culture and the learning and teaching of English in north-eastern Thailand. Classroom observations which were used to explore teachers' enactment of various degrees of learner-centered pedagogy demonstrated in the classroom (Blumberg, 2009). Observations were chosen as the data collection method to gather information about what takes place in the

classroom as opposed to accounts which are self-reporting as it gives a deeper understanding of the activity being explored (Dörnyei, 2007), which in this case is the learner-centeredness demonstrated in the classroom and the interactions between teachers and students as a social process through a cultural lens, in line with the sociocultural framework being used.

This research uses a qualitative research process with a cultural interpretation allowing for observations to be conducted considering culture as well, allowing for interpretation through deeper understanding of what happens in the classroom emphasizing the social and cultural processes that are taking place, so that observers outside of Thai culture can understand. These observations analysed using Blumberg's (2009) observation grids will then pave the way for the further qualitative methods (interviews with teachers and students) allowing them to describe the social and cultural processes involved in the English language classroom. This was the process that was employed for the initial study that preceded this investigation, to practice the various stages of the research procedure and to test and adjust techniques and ideas.

Richards (2003) explains how observation and interviews need to be worked on side by side to obtain maximum benefit from the contextual situation and enhance the possibility of building a strong relationship with the participants. The second method chosen was interviews which were used to explore teachers' perceptions of learner-centeredness (APA Work Group of the Board of Educational Affairs, 1997). Interviews were chosen as opposed to questionnaires because they are more efficient at asking probing questions as well as having a better response rate (Oppenheim, 1992). In addition, it was anticipated that building a relationship with Thai teachers was going to be required before deeper meaningful information would be forthcoming, and this was in fact the case. The reason for this is that Thais put great importance in relationships (Komin, 1990) and without this

connection, very little can be achieved. After one round of teacher interviews and an initial analysis of the data collected, I decided it was necessary to have a second round of interviews to build on the relationships that were developing with the teachers, as it produced much richer data, in part because the teachers felt more relaxed.

Group interviews with primary school students were conducted to ascertain whether the teachers' concepts of learner-centeredness are what students perceive they want or need. The reason why students of such a young age (from 6 to 13 years of age) were chosen is because English is taught from the first year of primary school in Thailand (nursery in some cases) and it is important to investigate whether their learning preferences are being met as part of learner-centered teaching. In addition, much of my previous studies and experience has been in Thailand. I have been concerned about the fossilisation of learner mistakes and errors and have conducted research in the past to help train Thai teachers of English by producing audio-visual materials and comics specifically for Thai primary education in north-eastern Thailand as this is where the initial errors occur before they become ingrained by the students.

Finally, a second round of interviews with the teachers were conducted. This took place as the initial analysis of the first round of the teacher interviews were taking place. It was difficult to ascertain at this time whether there was enough data to answer the research questions from the first round of teacher interviews, so a second round of interviews with the teachers was organized, based on the good relationships that had been developed during the observations and interviews that had already taken place; an important factor in Thai culture (Komin, 1991).

To summarise the data collection chronology, classes were observed, teachers interviewed, groups of students were interviewed, before the teachers were interviewed for a second and final time (see Figure 2.). During the data collection, observations were recorded on video and fieldnotes were taken.

Figure 2 – Chronology of data collection

Teacher	Classroom Observation	Teacher Interview One	Group Student Interview	Teacher Interview Two
T1	16 Dec 15	11 Jan 16	11 Jan 16	18 May 16
T2	16 Dec 15	12 Jan 16	12 Jan 16	17 May 16
T3	05 Jan 16	11 Jan 16	11 Jan 16	19 May 16
T4	05 Jan 16	15 Jan 16	15 Jan 16	18 May 16
T5	06 Jan 16	15 Jan 16	15 Jan 16	17 May 16
T6	06 Jan 16	16 Jan 16	16 Jan 16	18 May 16
T7	07 Jan 16	14 Jan 16	14 Jan 16	18 May 16
T8	07 Jan 16	12 Jan 16	12 Jan 16	19 May 16
T9	11 Jan 16	13 Jan 16	13 Jan 16	18 May 16
T10	12 Jan 16	14 Jan 16	14 Jan 16	17 May 16

Thailand is no different from other countries in that primary education and basic education are interchangeable, as the schools participating in this research were under the control of a government primary education area office at the start of this study, which looks after primary and secondary students. This has now changed during this investigation, as decentralisation of education has been reversed by the existing military government to allow Provincial Education Committees to take over from local Education Service Area offices (Draper & Kamnuansilpa, 2016). Provinces in Thailand were split into education area offices and in this education area, there were only two schools out of one hundred and fifty-six that had Grade 10, 11 and 12 students, which does not bode well for students wishing to further their education at university.

There is a challenge to interviewing young students, due to their possible limited ability to understand and conceptualise the questions being asked so group interviews were chosen to make it easier for them to share their thoughts and reduce the power differential between the interviewer and students (Mann, 2016, p. 183). In addition, this should create a friendly, non-threatening environment for them, so the interviews were conducted in natural surroundings (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015) for example, their classrooms. It is believed that the students would be able to help each other during the data collection process by expanding on each other's ideas and statements (Lewis, 1992). Working with young children raises ethical questions which have been addressed later in this chapter.

3.2.1 Participant Selection

The teachers and their students have been chosen from multiple schools in one district under the supervision of Education Area 4 in Udon Thani province. The process of this selection could be considered purposive sampling (Cohen & Manion, 1994). The schools were chosen due to convenience for the researcher, as it is extremely difficult to set up interviews and observations for research purposes, so the use of personal contacts in line with Thai culture (Komin, 1991) to make the arrangements provided the most efficient option.

The participants were chosen from schools in a province which has many rural schools, which epitomises the schools of north-eastern Thailand. Some of these schools had several hundred students whereas others had less than fifty. The larger schools tended to have more facilities with better grounds and the smaller schools tended to have to combine some of their classes because they were so small and had far fewer facilities, many in a state of disrepair.

The province where this study took place has four districts and 156 schools. Of these schools, only two schools have upper-secondary, years ten to twelve (M4-M6), indicating the difficulty for those students who may be good enough to further their studies at university. The schools that were selected were all between 10 and 45 minutes distance by country road, allowing for more than one school to be visited in a day.

Figure 3 details the teacher participants that took part in this investigation. The ten participant teachers in this study ranged from twenty-four years to fifty-three years of age, with between one year and thirty-three years' experience as teachers. Eight were female and two were male. Eight teachers had Masters' degrees, five in Education Administration and three in TESOL. The two teachers that had Bachelor' degrees, one was in Computer Technology and the other was in English. Four teachers taught all eight subjects in the primary curriculum, which are Thai language, Mathematics, Science, Social Studies (including Religion and Culture), Health and Physical Education, Arts, Occupations and Technology, and Foreign Languages (which is predominantly English). This breakdown of eight subjects is for all the provinces in Thailand, with the school director able to add one additional hour per week as seen fit to any subject (The Ministry of Education, Thailand, 2008). Baker (2008) explains that up to 80% of primary school teachers lack English language qualifications in Thailand and a further 50% of those teachers have low level proficiency; figures not reflected in the participants of this study.

Figure 3 - Teacher participants and background details

Teacher	School	Age	M/F	Y Teach	Y School	Bachelor Degree	Masters Degree	Subjects Taught	Grades
T1	S1	53	M	33	25	B.A. Comm. Arts	M.A. TESOL	English Dance-music Art	1-6
T2	S2	24	F	1	1	B.Tech. Computer Tech.	-	English, IT Dance-music	4-9
T3	S1	35	F	12	3	B.A. English	M.Ed. Admin.	English	1-3 7-9
T4	S3	30	F	5	0.5	B.A. English	M.Ed. Admin.	8 Subjects (all subjects)	3-4
T5	S4	40	F	16	12	B.Ed. English	M.Ed. Admin.	English	6-9
T6	S5	28	M	3	3	B.A. English	-	English	4-6
T7	S6	44	F	13	3	B.A. English	M.Ed. Admin.	Maths Thai English	4-9
T8	S7	33	F	7	4	B.A. English	M.A. TESOL	8 Subjects (all subjects)	1-6
T9	S8	40	F	11	11	B.A. English	M.A. TESOL	8 Subjects (all subjects)	1-6
T10	S9	28	F	5	0.33	B.Ed. English	M.Ed. Admin.	8 Subjects (all subjects)	1-6

For the first three grades of primary education, English is taught for one hour a week, two hours a week for the next three grades and for three hours a week for the lower secondary level. Upper secondary students receive two hours. As a proportion of the Total Learning Time mandated in Curriculum 51 (The Ministry of Education, Thailand, 2008) these hours

equate to 4.7%, 9.5%, 13.6%, and 4.9% of the total curriculum respectively. This is standard practice all over Thailand. In comparison to other subjects, for the first three years of primary education Thai language and mathematics have five hours a week compared to one for English, two for science, three for social studies. For the second three years, Thai language and mathematics have four hours a week compared to two for English, two for science and three for social studies (The Ministry of Education, Thailand, 2008).

Figure 4 - Student participants details

Teacher	School	Grades	Age	M/F
T1	S1	6	11	3F/2M
T2	S2	5	10	5F
T3	S1	1	6	4F/1M
T4	S3	5-6	10-11	3F/2M
T5	S4	8	13	5M
T6	S5	6	11	3F/2M
T7	S6	5-6	10-11	3F/2M
T8	S7	1	6	2F/3M
T9	S8	4	9	2F/3M
T10	S9	4	9	4F/1M

The students who participated in the group interviews were very young and chosen by their teachers. Ethical approval was agreed, and procedures were followed to protect the children, taking account of their age; details of which appear later in this chapter under ethical considerations. The student participants details are at Figure 4. The teachers were asked to select a cross-section of their class to demonstrate the range of students that they have. Five students from each observed class were selected and interviewed in groups. During the interview process, the class teacher was encouraged to be present to ensure the

safety and welfare of the students and to clarify any ambiguities that arose. Two teachers decided to leave during the interviews to allow the students more freedom to speak if they so wished, which did not contravene Thai regulatory practices.

3.2.2 Classroom Observation

Observations have been used as a major research procedure since the 1960s when Flanders (1960) investigated teaching styles. It has been chosen as a research method for this investigation because it provides reliable information as to what is taking place rather than self-reported accounts and provides rich contextual information about the targeted phenomenon (Dörnyei, 2007), which in this case, is the amount and depth of learner-centeredness being displayed in the classroom. Observing Thai teachers of English teaching their classes gives the researcher the opportunity to see how teaching and learning of English are conducted in the Thai context. Teachers' values and viewpoints are difficult to separate from their classroom practices (Woods, 1996) and these were investigated later using interviews, as recommended earlier in this chapter by Richards (2003).

The observation of the Thai teachers of English by the researcher in their classrooms was conducted as a non-participant observer in their normal classroom environment. The intended duration of the classroom observations was approximately sixty minutes each. These timings are the optimal timings considering the data that needs to be gathered and the ethical requirements for the participants (detailed later in this chapter), as class timings are normally one hour, and I did not want to cause more anxiety than necessary with the observation. Even though one hour is the normal timing for a lesson, due to logistical problems and Thai etiquette, some of these times varied. Examples of these variations are detailed in subsequent sections of this research.

It is important not to influence the research process. King (1979) cited by Cohen & Manion (1994) gives a very descriptive example of how this can be achieved, focusing on among other things the avoidance of eye contact during the observation process; however, this is not as easy as it first seems when dealing with young children. The five to eleven-year-old students observed during this research were particularly curious about a stranger in the classroom and it proved very difficult to avoid eye contact at times.

In addition, my presence in the classroom may have also impacted the teaching of that lesson leading to the 'Hawthorne Effect' (Wickström & Bendix, 2000), when teachers produce a lesson where their productivity is increased or altered from the norm because they are being observed. This was particularly evident during the initial study when one teacher appeared to have constructed a lesson out of the ordinary. This was revealed as the teacher had difficulty setting up the equipment for a listening activity as there were cables missing and the students appeared lost as they attempted to complete the subsequent activities. Because of this, during the main study, teachers were briefed not to prepare a special lesson as the research was based on what they usually produced in their classrooms.

Furthermore, I am conscious of my own potential bias and that as a researcher, I may be under the influence of the 'Halo Effect' (Nisbett & Wilson, 1977) whilst observing the class, where I have preconceived global ideas of Thais and their educational problems in the English language classroom. Having spent more than fifteen years in Thailand, it is possible that I could bring my own biases with me to the investigation, so it is important that as a researcher I do not see things that are not there based on my preconceived ideas of learner-centeredness and Thai cultural traits.

Wragg (1994) believes that qualitative observers should focus on the purpose of the observation, the requirement to think reflectively on the quality and effectiveness of what

has been observed, the different ways that the observation can be discussed with the teacher (in this case the interview) and the way that the observation is to be recorded. For this to happen, the observations and interviews were video recorded to allow for time for the researcher to think reflectively and to construct follow up questions for further interviews when required. These videos were kept confidential at all times to protect the participants; the details of the confidentiality processes appear in the ethical considerations later in this chapter.

The observations took place to detect the amount, types and degree of learner-centeredness that took place in the English language classroom using an instrument specifically designed for this study. This instrument reflects that when teaching becomes more learner-centered, there must be changes in the Balance of Power, the Function of Content, the Role of the Teacher, the Responsibility for Learning and the Purpose and Processes of Evaluation (Weimer, 2002). These five areas have been modified by Blumberg (2009) to form a series of rubrics to assist teachers with the change from teacher-centered to a more learner-centered way of teaching, as teachers transition their way through the process.

Observations were etic in nature (culturally neutral) from the viewpoint of the researcher when observing the learner-centeredness taking place in the classroom, whereas the interviews were emic accounts explaining the behaviour and beliefs of those who are based within the Thai culture. This is to illustrate whether mainstream culture inhibits forms of social action or change to improve conditions (Crookes, 2015) in the implementation of learner-centeredness in the English language classroom.

For this research, rubrics by Blumberg (2009) incorporating the Function of Content, the Role of the Instructor, the Responsibility for Learning, the Purposes and Processes of

Assessment and the Balance of Power have been adapted to make a grid that was used for the observations of the English language classrooms (see Appendix A.).

Figure 5 - Observation Grid

Teacher: Time:	Teacher Centered	Lower Level Transition	No Evidence	Higher Level Transition	Learner Centered
The Function of Content	1 2√ 3 4	1 2 3√ 4	1 2 3 4√	1√ 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
The Role of the Teacher	1 2 3 4 5√ 6√	1√ 2 3√ 4 5 6	1 2√ 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4√ 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Responsibility for Learning	1√ 2√ 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√ 7	1√ 2√ 3 4 5 6 7√	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The Balance of Power	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

This grid encompasses the learner-centered/teacher-centered continuum incorporating lower level and higher level transitions from Blumberg (2009), which is one of the main areas of focus of this study. An observation grid (see Figure 5) was used to capture what was taking place during the observations to assess how much of a transition had taken place between teacher-centeredness and learner-centeredness as detailed by Blumberg (2009). The Observation Grid is explained in more detail in Appendix A.

The observations were filmed and transcribed in Thai and English, with English translations of the Thai dialogue for a detailed analysis to take place. Fieldnotes were also taken at this time for analysis at a later stage. They were taken whilst the researcher video recorded the classroom observation at the back of the classroom. These fieldnotes for the observations comprised of background details of the class written at the top of the page in an indexed book. Underneath the background details there were numbered entries detailing what took place during the observation. Additional background notes and some reflections were written on a notepad and inserted into the indexed book. As part of the analysis phase of this study, the fieldnotes were referred to alongside the observation grids mentioned previously. An example of the fieldnotes is at Appendix B.

In some instances, it was difficult to hear the dialogue taking place between the teacher and individual students, due to the dialogue taking place one on one at the other end of the classroom; however, it was still possible to analyse the activity taking place for learner-centeredness and cultural interaction without the dialogue for some of these situations.

The videos of the observations were reviewed, and the observation grids completed to reflect the degree of learner-centeredness taking place during the observed class. This task was completed in conjunction with the fieldnotes (for an example see Appendix B.) that were taken at the time, and with the transcriptions when they had been concluded.

The transcription of the classroom dialogue was used to illustrate my analysis of the classroom interactions and the non-verbal communication that took place. The approach used here relays the spoken interaction and relevant non-verbal communication as Halliday (1989) states that it is not incorrect to transcribe as ordinary orthography, as it is easier to read and not out of the ordinary. For this reason, this transcription is appropriate for this investigation to answer the research questions and so has been deemed fit for purpose. The transcription conventions are explained in Appendix C.

3.2.3 Teacher Interviews

Once the observation data had been collected and analysed for emergent themes, a semi-structured interview of the teachers followed to investigate teachers' perceptions of what happened in the classroom and the thoughts behind the lesson observed and the teacher's beliefs and grounding in learner-centered English language education. Interviews rather than a questionnaire were chosen because most questions were open ended and probing, allowing for detailed data to be collected, as well as there being a better response rate than with a questionnaire (Oppenheim, 1992). In addition, I wanted to go beyond pattern finding and the mapping of relationships (Gu, 2016). A semi-structured interview was chosen to give a more relaxed and natural approach to the interview, which also allowed for probes and the chance of a deeper understanding of critical events (Wragg, 1994), for example, explicit occurrences of students' classroom behaviour when teachers are implementing learner-centered techniques. The initial round of semi-structured interview questions for the teachers can be seen at Appendix D.

When formulating research questions for these semi-structured interviews, the language used must not show any implicit or explicit bias of the researcher (Greenwald & Krieger, 2006). I did not want to lead the participant with my questioning, whether

deliberately or unintentionally, so it was important to use language that was not emotive and that could be absorbed by the participants intact and not to allow any conscious approval for a belief and more to the point, any unconscious beliefs to appear by the researcher. These normally take the form of pre-existing ideas, beliefs and values that all humans possess and can manifest themselves in outcome-orientation effects in survey research (Rosenthal, 1964), resulting in the research lacking in reliability.

The interviews were conducted in Thai and English with the help of an interpreter. This person was pivotal in this research because she played many roles. As well as acting as the interpreter, she organized the interviews and observations as the teachers and students were spread out in nine different schools over one district. The interpreter works in the education field where this research took place, so is familiar with the topics, the language and has a shared understanding of the research context (Mann, 2016).

Questions were asked by the researcher in English; however, if the Thai teacher of English did not think they had sufficient English to participate in the interview using English, Thai was used which allowed for the use of Thai terminology which added to the spirit of local communication interaction (Briggs, 1986). This made discourse easier by reducing the Power Distance (Hofstede, 1980) for those teachers that required it, as some participants may have an increased sense of contextual consciousness compared to westerners (Fieg, 1989). This was explained by Hall (1976), as shown in the Literature Review chapter and Ryan (2012) who state that High Context (HC) cultures spend more capital on how something is communicated, rather than what is being conveyed.

This involved the researcher asking the questions in English, the interpreter asking the same question in Thai (if it was required) and then receiving the answer in Thai or English depending on what language the participant was more comfortable in. If the answer was in

Thai, then it would be explained to the researcher by the interpreter in English. The whole process was recorded on video, so that transcriptions could take place later. Moreover, field notes were taken, highlighting emergent themes and topics of interest as and when they appeared.

The use of an interpreter has benefits when they are positioned as insiders in the research, allowing them to be accepted by participants and to obtain easier access to people and facilities, as was the case with this research. However, there were some problems when relaying answers to interview questions as there were instances when questions would have to be asked again to seek further clarification as there was understanding between the participant and the interpreter, but not with the researcher in that instance.

It was intended that the interviews would last approximately one hour each; however, times varied depending on the depth of the answers to the questions and whether the participants wanted to keep talking. Some participants kept talking even though the researcher had finished asking questions.

Once the interviews had been completed, the videos were transcribed by a bilingual university student with a background knowledge of the research taking place and the language being used in the context of this research. These transcriptions of the videos and the fieldnotes were used for the analysis of the data. Mann (2016) believes that this can put distance between the researcher and the data; however, for this research, the transcription took place over a seven week period, allowing for daily discussions and feedback on the quality of the transcriptions, and for the ethical requirements concerning confidentiality to be maintained.

After an initial analysis of the data collected during the teacher interview phase, a further round of teacher interviews was conducted as social relationships developed and participants relaxed and felt more comfortable in expressing themselves in line with qualitative cultural psychological methodology (Ratner, 1997).

The teacher interview questions were based on the five dimensions by Blumberg (2009) explained earlier and Hofstede's (1986) adapted student/teacher and student/student interaction frameworks of analysis, also discussed earlier. More general types of questions were devised for the initial round of interviews with the participants and then after reflection by the researcher, more specific questions were asked based on the initial responses of the participants. Fieldnotes were taken during the interview process detailing the answers given to the questions asked by the researcher, with comments and reactions by the researcher at the time of the interview to emergent themes. As stated previously, the initial questions are at Appendix D. The second round of questions are at Appendix E.

3.2.4 Student Interviews

The purpose of the student interviews is to investigate their perceptions of learning preferences in the English language classroom in relation to learner-centered teaching to see if it is mediated by Thai culture. The group interviews took place in relaxed surroundings, sometimes sat on chairs, sometimes sat on the floor, taking advice from their teachers. The teachers were present during the interview process; however, two teachers decided to leave their students' interviews for a while as they wanted to give the students more freedom to answer the questions. This research followed BERA (British Education Research Association) guidelines and was approved in the first year of this study. Consent forms and information sheets were completed by the students' parents or guardians (explained in more detail in the next section of this chapter) and permission was granted by the local education office, the school directors and the teachers themselves. The children

were briefed in English and in Thai by the researcher, the interpreter and their teacher to ensure they understood what was happening before, during and after the interview. The students could leave at any time if they did not wish to continue, without any penalty and all data kept confidential, anonymized and secure.

The student group interviews lasted approximately thirty minutes and were recorded on video for ease of transcription later and for the additional benefit of seeing any non-verbal clues. As mentioned earlier in the Literature Review, a questionnaire by Nunan (1997) based on how to start learner-centered teaching was used as a basis for the group interview questions for the students of the observed classes, focusing on the topics, methods, language areas, out of class activities and assessment preferences of the students having been observed in the classroom as part of the observation process. This questionnaire was used as it was very simple and would allow for the developmental capacity of the young students taking part in this research. Questions relating to methods, out of class use of English and assessment were the focus as these areas directly relate to Blumberg (2009). The questions used for the basis of the student group interview can be seen at Appendix F. Fieldnotes were taken during the group student interviews itemising the answers given by the students to the interview questions, with additional comments and reactions to the emergent themes by the researcher when they appeared.

The group interview process was chosen as the children participating were very young (some were as young as six years old) and would benefit from being faced with interview questions in small groups and expanding their classmates' ideas (Lewis, 1992), allowing students to explain their ideas and understandings between themselves (Maybin, 1994).

The children's developmental capacity must be considered as they may have difficulty in answering or understanding complex questions because of their age. By having an

interpreter present, it was possible to have questions asked again and paraphrased for the participants to understand what was being asked. The purpose was to find out what they liked, what they preferred and what made them happy. Expectations were quite high that meaningful data would be collected as the interview process was conducted in a relaxed friendly environment and young children are curious and inquisitive through social interaction (Engel, 2011).

It is also important to appreciate that young children tend to agree with someone who asks open questions, even if they do not understand the question (Greig, et al., 2013), so care was taken by the researcher and interpreter to phrase questions and repeat questions to obtain the data required. Culturally, this could be more so, due to the deference that is paid to teachers in Thailand. This was alleviated somewhat as the interpreter is experienced with children and found it easy to strike up a rapport with the participants in a short period of time. This meant that the honesty, depth and richness of scope of the data as well as the objectivity of the researcher remained intact as much as possible.

Furthermore, there may be a tendency for some voices to be heard more than others (Hill, et al., 1996), so care was taken to give everybody a chance to speak. As mentioned earlier in this chapter, the children were interviewed in a familiar place so as not to directly affect their responses due to being in a strange environment. They were normally sat on the floor with the researcher and translator as this kind of behaviour is more relaxing and less threatening for the students. The interviews were videoed, transcribed and translated for further analysis.

3.3 Ethical Considerations

It is important to accept that ethics in research is not to be approached as a series of checklists that need to be checked off before the research can start. An ethical approach to

an investigative study requires continual reflection as the research progresses for it to be truly trustworthy (Rossman & Rallis, 2010).

Greig, Taylor, & MacKay (2013) explain how the 1978 Belmont Report established three basic ethic principles; autonomy, benevolence and justice. This involves consent by free choice without fear of repercussions and total understanding of the research taking place. In addition, risk assessment is taken out with a view to protecting the participants as well as assuring the benefits of certain aspects of risk. Moreover, all participants must be treated fairly and equally. A fourth basic principle was added later by Beauchamp & Childress (2008), called non-maleficence, which is an agreement to allow no harm to come to the participants. Following these fundamental principles allows researchers to act in a way that is ethical.

The British Educational Research Association (BERA) has produced ethical guidelines which formed the basis for the ethical guidelines for this research as this investigation was taking place under a British university. It also encompassed the fundamental principles in the above paragraph. This ethics and educational research (Hammersley & Traianou, 2012) identifies principles that are designed to minimise the chances of harm to those taking part in the research, to respect autonomy and the decisions of the participants, to protect privacy of all individuals, to offer a certain amount of reciprocity bearing in mind the time and trouble it takes to participate in research and to treat people equally.

Ethical approval, which included data protection and project risk assessment for this research, was granted on 25 September 2014 by the Human Research Ethics Committee (HREC) of the Open University (Ref. HREC/2014/1781/Graham/1) during the first year of this study.

This research took a ‘cyclical process of inquiry’ looking at all the decisions and processes that took place through a ‘moral lens’ (Rossman & Rallis, 2010). In the planning stage, care was taken to protect the identities of all participants by ensuring a system was devised that codified all participants and stored all data on password protected computers. In addition, great care was taken to explain the research to the participants (sometimes via parents and guardians) why the research was being conducted and allowing them the opportunity to withdraw at any time without penalty.

An example of this was the consideration given to the formulation of consent forms in the planning stage and how they had to satisfy the educational ethical requirements as well as the need to protect the participants, considering the Thai cultural setting of this research and the young age of the students. Consent forms were produced for the teachers and the students’ parents based on original material from Oxford Brookes University (2014). In addition to the consent forms, separate information sheets were also provided for both students’ parents and teachers detailing the background to this research, what it entails, and the protection being afforded to the participants throughout the research process. This included further oral information for those that requested it. Further examples of the supporting information sheets for the students are at Appendix G in English and Appendix H in Thai. Moreover, examples of the information sheets in English for the Thai teachers are at Appendix I and in Thai at Appendix J. The consent forms are in English at Appendix K and in Thai at Appendix L. The information sheets in English for teachers are at Appendix M and in Thai at Appendix N.

To avoid maleficence, great care and effort was taken to ensure that all participants were treated fairly and equally. This turned out surprisingly easy as the participants and their school directors were very supportive of this research and I found that there were only minor difficulties when trying to gain access to participants. Examples of some of these

difficulties appear further on in this section. Several school directors showed an interest in the outcome of the research, so it was of paramount importance that identities were protected at all times, although the outcomes of this research will be made available for those who are interested.

This research was broadly conducted under a consequentialist approach to ethics in that the end justifies the means. An example of this is that teachers are put under extra strain by having someone in their class observing them and their students. In addition, the participants' free-time is limited, and they gave this up to be interviewed. This sacrifice was deemed justifiable to produce research that would benefit the teachers, students and the school, as well as Thai education in general. By signing the consent forms, the participants agreed that these benefits outweigh the inconvenience to the participants and to the researcher.

The teachers and students who participated were also treated under the ethics of care, in conjunction with the virtue ethics of the researcher to ensure that they were protected at all times (Israel & Hay, 2006). At no time was any individual to be put at risk. This applied to teachers who need to be protected from any repercussions from their workplace as well as children who are obviously more vulnerable because of their age. This virtue ethics considers the significance of the social relationships concerned with this research as well as the situational settings even though it is somewhat dispositional within the individual and difficult to code (Ciurria, 2014).

An example of this was when I went to the schools for the observations and interviews. I would usually be met by the school director who would take an obvious interest in what we were doing. I was very careful to explain that this research was not about finding faults and reporting findings up the chain of command. This was explained verbally and backed up

with copies of the information sheets that I gave to the directors that required them. I explained that it was to investigate the extent to which learner-centeredness is used in the classroom and to analyse the collected data to look for the cultural context of what has taken place. This was also made clear to the participants who seemed to appreciate this afforded protection.

The ethical questions provided by Stutchbury & Fox (2009) were asked throughout this research in order to use the ethical framework by Seedhouse (2009) to its fullest effect when considering the procedures for each stage, allowing for a methodical ethical process with a moral basis. One example of that was particularly relevant from the above studies was concerning cultural sensitivity and how researchers need to be aware of the culture of the participants when asking questions. Another was making sure that participants were only minimally inconvenienced by this study. Teachers are busy and making time for researchers cuts into their already busy schedule. This involved paying close attention to the participants to see signs of anxiety and relying on the advice from the interpreter who is Thai and was more attuned to possible cultural problems that could arise. In addition, I found it useful to ask these questions as they reflected many aspects of The Belmont Report explained by Greig, et al. (2013), which include respect for the individual and respect for their decisions, protecting them from harm.

Adamson (2003) explains that a considerable amount of deference may be displayed by Thais to the native speaking researcher, sometimes making it difficult to understand the discourse that has taken place, so care was taken to understand how the teachers and students behaved when they were interviewed. As I am a native English-speaking researcher, I was careful when probing further in a line of questioning, especially when deference was shown, to illicit the respondents' answer by framing the question in an acceptable context for the participant. For example, when asking questions, I made sure to

explain the context and background to the question before asking the question itself. If the researcher understands this before asking the participants questions, more valid and reliable data will be collected. Having spent considerable time immersed in the Thai culture, I was able to ask further questions when this type of character trait was displayed.

An example of this type of behaviour was when a Thai teacher of English, who had majored in a different subject than English explained her actions in the English language classroom and proceeded to demean and belittle her own efforts compared to her perceived ideas as to how I would have acted in the same situation. In this situation, assurance was provided and support for what they had accomplished given.

In addition, legal requirements must be adhered to (Open University ethical requirements and UK government law), especially when dealing with children of such a young age, and must be complied with. For this study, this included not only the written permission from parents, but also from the local education area office as well as ensuring data protection for all participants. Furthermore, relationships were important if the research was to be successful, especially in Thailand, where relationships are considered so important. There had to be trust from all parties, where no unreasonable demands were made, and every participant was playing a part on a voluntary basis. Moreover, honesty and fairness were paramount with all participants being involved treated fairly and equally after having the implications and expectations of this research explained to them correctly.

To illustrate how ethics had been a leading consideration whilst conducting this research, what follows is an example of how decisions were made during the collection of data on one day. On the day of the observations, it was the intention that one observation was to take place with the possibility of more. The first observation did not take place because the teacher had to take a student to hospital due to concerns for her welfare as the teacher

stated that her parents would not take her. The teacher concerned was rather stressed when she returned, and it was explained to her that this was not a problem. The teacher concerned was not observed at that time and her observation was rescheduled for another time with no difficulties. It is interesting to note that the school director was at the school during this time and did not interfere with what was going on.

Moving to another school a further observation took place. The observation started about twenty-five minutes after the lesson had started due to a discussion with the school director taking place before the opportunity to view the class. The interview was in his office with coffee and he was asking if I knew of any volunteer workers who could help at his school to teach English. This type of occurrence is an important cultural aspect of working in Thailand, illustrating how harmony and relationships are very important in Thai culture (Komin, 1991). As a researcher, I wished to start the observation on time; however, I spent time with the school director discussing what he wanted to talk about, knowing that the teacher had already started the class.

This also demonstrates the difficulties in being objective and remaining an uninvolved researcher. After the discussion with the school director, the observation took place with no further hindrance and the school director's request for assistance was put forward for consideration to the registered charity concerned, demonstrating how my position as an insider/outsider changed due to the context of the situation.

The last observation that was possible that day did not take place as the class was not set up when we arrived. In the coming weeks, there were various sporting events scheduled and students were preparing for their activities on the sports field. The school director was not in attendance and when the teachers were asked about the observation, there seemed a reluctance to comply with our request. This assumption was confirmed by my Thai

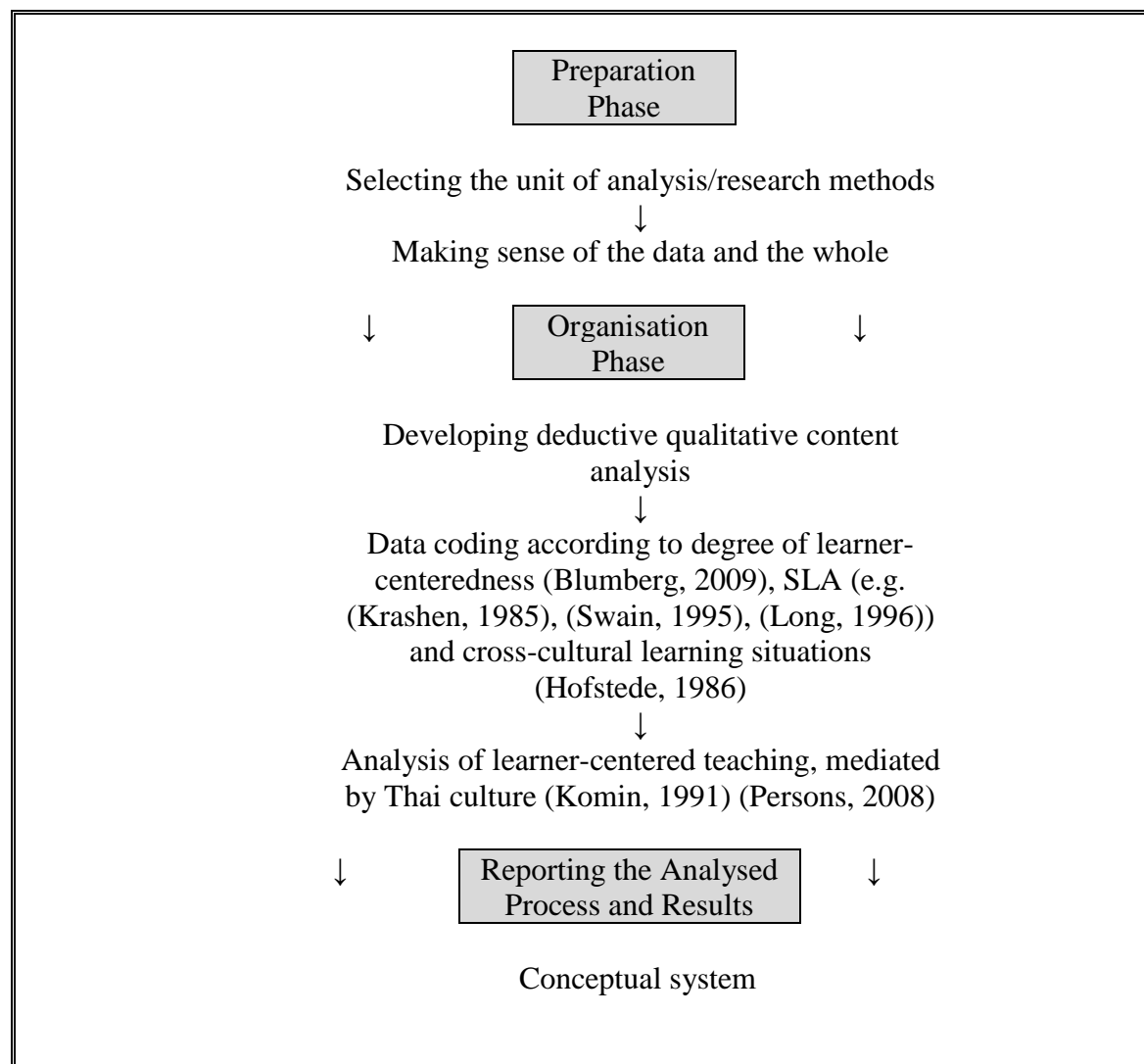
colleague. The offer was made to set up a classroom by the teachers; however, it was declined as it was not a normal scheduled class and it was putting undue pressure on the teacher concerned as well as the students and we did not want to damage our social relationships with the school.

This section has described the ethical thought process behind the planning, data collection, analysis and onward transmission of research findings. Care was taken to anticipate problem areas before they materialized; however, constant monitoring is required to fulfil the ethical requirements of this research.

3.4 Data Analysis

The data analysis took place using the Deductive Qualitative Content Analysis Process shown in Figure 6. A deductive qualitative content analysis was used, adapted from a model by Elo & Kyngäs (2008) to analyse the collected data because of the entity view towards culture that has been adopted for this research. As explained in previous chapters, an entity view towards culture is a concept that has a comprehensible structure, which remains relatively constant in the thoughts of its members (Dimaggio & Markus, 2010). This essentialist view toward culture allows schemas (cognitive structures) to be determined and used for analysis in the deductive qualitative content analysis process, keeping the idea of national cultures comparatively stable, for example, the use of the four Hofstede (1980) dimensions and the five dimensions of learner-centeredness by Blumberg (2009).

Figure 6 - The Deductive Qualitative Content Analysis Process



A deductive qualitative analysis is where the analysis is based on an existing theory moving from general to the specific (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008). It is useful in testing whether concepts and models can be used as categories for deductive analysis (Marshall & Rossman, 1995). Moreover, if they could not be used, for example, when analysed data did not support an existing hypothesis, then there is the possibility of creating new concepts to be used in a more inductive way, moving from the specific to the general in order to make a more general statement (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008).

This study found the deductive approach to be particularly useful in testing whether an entity view to culture, namely Hofstede's (1986) four problematic cross-cultural learning

situations could be used in a different context (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008); one where transitions to learner-centeredness (Blumberg, 2009) are being analysed in classrooms in north-eastern Thailand from a sociocultural perspective. Holliday (2009) states that an entity view of culture highlights exceptions of behavior rather than the norm, leading to the notions of deficiency and exception; however, this does not necessarily have to be the case. If there are contrasts, there does not have to be a negative connotation, it can be looked at an emergent theme for analysis or an area for future research. An entity view does not necessarily define the Other.

The deductive qualitative analysis was adapted from the original Preparation, Organizing and Resulting Phases in the Content Analysis Process (Elo & Kyngäs, 2008) to reflect the amount of learner-centeredness (Blumberg, 2009) that was evident in the collected observations, teacher interviews and group student interviews and cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1986) exhibited in teacher/student and student/student interaction. This adaptation was chosen for this research because qualitative inquiry can work in a deductive way when using single cases as evidence for general theory (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015).

During the preparation phase, the units of analysis/research methods were chosen as the most productive way to collect the data. These methods were teacher observations, teacher interviews and group student interviews. Once the data was collected, the three units were analysed as a whole to identify emergent patterns, as explained by Richards (2003), making sense of the data and the whole by analysing observations and interviews in tandem.

The observations, teacher interviews and group student interviews were videoed, and the analysis took place using the videos produced, transcriptions and additional field notes taken at the time. Whilst analysing the initial teacher interviews, a conscious decision was

made to hold a second round of interviews to confirm emergent themes that were becoming apparent concerning the relationship between Thai culture and the learning and teaching of English in the classrooms under investigation.

As explained earlier, to explore how Thai culture interacts with understandings and implementations of learner-centered policy, the data was analysed from the interviews and observations with the use of the Blumberg (2009) observation grid showing the transition from teacher-centered to learner-centered activities as part of my framework in conjunction with student and teacher interactions, mediated by Thai culture. To illustrate this, an example of the observation grid was shown in Figure 5 using the transcription illustrated at Appendix C. The primary school lesson was viewed as a whole to identify aspects of learner-centeredness and cultural interaction in the classroom as well as looking at the individual events that took place.

For example, taking Figure 5. as a case in point, by studying the Function of Content and the sub-section Category 2, the level to which students engage in content is shown as teacher-centered, where Blumberg (2009) states that the teacher allows students to memorise the content. She goes on to explain that lower level of transitioning would allow students to learn materials without transforming or reflecting on them. Higher level transitioning would have the students transform and reflect on some of the materials and to form their own meaning, and finally learner-centeredness would have the teacher encouraging the students to transform and reflect on most of the content in order for them to make their own meaning. In this example of classroom observation, only memorisation was taking place, and so Function of Content, Category 2, the level to which students engage in content was recorded as teacher-centered.

The observation grid, video, fieldnotes and transcription were used to identify aspects of learner-centered teaching that took place during the observation. The example shown previously at Figure 4 illustrates a small amount of higher level transition toward learner-centeredness with the Function of Content, Responsibility for Learning and Balance of Power (Blumberg, 2009) remaining with the teacher.

In the organisation phase a Developing Structured Analysis Matrix (Figure 7.) was initiated which allowed for data coding to take place according to categories, allowing comparisons to reviewed literature to answer the research questions. This was adapted from the Qualitative Content Analysis Illustrated by Meaning Units Taken from the Patients Own Words in an Art Psychotherapy Session before Scribbling (Thyme, et al., 2013) allowing the opportunity to analyse the data in relation to the layers of learner-centeredness, cultural dimensions and classroom interaction in a methodical manner.

Figure 7 - Developing Structured Analysis Matrix

Details	Meaning Unit	Codes	Categories	Sub-Categories	Theme
Teacher: Time:	Observed Activity Teacher Interview Segment Student Interview Segment	Identify Transitions to Learner-centeredness using Blumberg (2009)	Identify Hofstede's (1980) Four Dimensions of Cultural Differences Thai Cultural Traits (Komin, 1991) Face (Persons, 2008)	Identify Hofstede's (1986) Adapted Problematic Cross-Cultural Learning Situations	Application of Categories and Sub-Categories to Transitions to Learner-centeredness Codes and SLA

Using the Developing Structured Analysis Matrix involves the researcher interpreting the data analysis by continually relating data parts to the whole to obtain the meaning. From the data, evidence must be produced in order to answer the research questions, so it must be interrogated to identify whether there is a case to argue, selecting the relevant data and presenting it as evidence (Atkins & Wallace, 2012). Brinkmann & Kvale (2015) believe that this type of hermeneutical interpretation of meaning allows for innovation and creativity, whilst at the same time testing against global meaning, its own frame of reference and knowledge of the theme of the text. This allows the researcher to interpret the meaning from a given event using a prescribed framework and to analyse beyond what is immediately evident.

When conducting the organisation phase of the Deductive Qualitative Content Process, the data has to be analysed by coding the amounts and types of learner-centered teaching (Blumberg, 2009), cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980), and any possible relationships to Thai culture (Komin, 1991), (Persons, 2008), and cross-cultural learning situations (Hofstede, 1986).

The cross-cultural learning situations (Hofstede, 1986) are based on the circumstances where a teacher is teaching students from a different cultural background. Cortazzi & Jin (2013) detail the importance of understanding the roles of teachers and students during their interactions in the classroom to negate the possibility of gaps in culture and misunderstandings. The activities that involve the students, the teacher and content interactions are an important aspect of learner-centered teaching and are a part of the Role of the Teacher (Blumberg, 2009). The original cross-cultural learning situations (Hofstede, 1986) are as follows:

1. The differences in social positions of teachers and students in the two societies.
2. The differences in relevance of the curriculum for the two societies.
3. The differences in profiles in cognitive abilities between the populations from which teacher and student are drawn.
4. The differences in expected patterns of teacher/student and student/student interaction.

(Hofstede, 1986, p. 303)

These cross-cultural learning situations have been adapted for this research to encompass learner-centered teaching and a different teaching context, where the teacher and the students are from the same cultural background; however, the teacher is using a pedagogy (learner-centered teaching) that may have different cultural characteristics than what the students and the teacher could be used to. The adapted cross-cultural learning situations are as follows:

1. The differences in social positions of teachers and students in the classroom when teachers are using learner-centered teaching, e.g. the Balance of Power (Blumberg, 2009) and ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978).
2. The differences in relevance of the curriculum when teachers use learner-centered teaching, e.g. the Role of the Teacher (Blumberg, 2009), Affective Filter (Krashen, 1982) and Input Hypothesis (Krashen, 1985).
3. The differences in profiles in cognitive abilities between the populations from which teachers and students are drawn when teachers are using learner-centered teaching within a sociocultural framework, whether teachers and students understand and can use a different pedagogy in the English language classroom,

e.g. the Function of Content (Blumberg, 2009), Input Hypothesis and Natural Order (Krashen, 1985).

4. The differences in expected patterns of teacher/student and student/student interaction when teachers use learner-centered teaching, e.g. the Role of the Teacher (Blumberg, 2009) and the Interactional Hypothesis (Long, 1996).

Adapted from Hofstede (1986)

The above adaptations will be used to demonstrate how there may be relationships between cross-cultural learning situations, SLA and learner-centered teaching, facilitated by Thai culture. These cross-cultural learning situations are important if we consider that the teachers and students in the English language classroom in Thailand both have the same national culture; however, the introduction of learner-centered teaching may introduce new pedagogical techniques that both the teachers and the students are not familiar with. This may affect the interaction in the classroom between the teacher and the students as well as between the students and forms an important part of second language acquisition. An example of this is how open-ended questions by the teacher could cause a perceived loss of face for students if they could not answer and be considered a threat to the position of the teacher in the classroom in Thailand (Berendt & Mattsson, 2013). This situation would be classed as a meaning unit or data part for this research.

The data parts have been classed as meaning units and can be defined as words, sentences and paragraphs related to each other due to their content or context (Graneheim & Lundman, 2004). For this study, meaning units also contain the actions of the participants in relation to learner-centeredness, classroom interaction and cultural dimensions. Meaning units are the first step of the procedure for identifying psychological themes in verbal accounts (Ratner, 2002) as well as observations. They are coherent and distinct themes,

which can only be identified once the whole protocol has been completed and the researcher can identify the meaning units from this account, based on the research questions that have been asked as part of the study and the observations that have been witnessed.

The transcription contained at Appendix C will be used as an example to demonstrate the analysis process. It shows a student in the classroom from my initial study who was reticent to come to the front of the class and speak. A detailed description of the meaning unit (Ratner, 2002), is used to analyse the reasons why the student decided not to speak at the front of the class and why the local dialect was used in order to speak to the teacher, not just that the student did not wish to be involved in the classroom activity. This meaningful description using the Deductive Qualitative Content Analysis Process demonstrates the pursuit of a deeper cultural meaning of certain acts giving much more richness of perception (Holliday, 2002), allowing the explanation to push for meaningful transformation of teaching in English (Watson-Gegeo, 2016).

For example, using the five learner-centered dimensions from Blumberg (2009) to analyse the meaning unit, the student was not engaged with the lesson (Function of Content) and did not want to interact in the front of the class, clearly expressing his views that he was not happy with the learning environment (Role of the Teacher).

Although the teacher was speaking in Thai, the student reverted to his first language which is Isan (the language that most children in the district speak at home), most likely because of strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1980) and a threat to ego (Komin, 1991). The student came from a Collectivist culture (Hofstede, 1980) with interdependence orientation (Komin, 1991), and would probably be happier to stay in the group, rather than being singled out to come out to the front of the class.

The teacher was acting in a teacher-centered way by insisting that he did come out to the front, demonstrating high Power Distance (Hofstede, 1980) that is familiar in Thailand and so the student would feel threatened and it would be a challenge to his ego orientation (Komin, 1991) because there was a chance that the student could lose face, *nata*, through a lack of *saksi*, a lack of individual driving force (Persons, 2008) within the Collectivist culture (Hofstede, 1980) in that he may appear *kee kiat* or lazy to everyone else.

The differences in social positions of teachers and students in the classroom (Hofstede, 1986) when teachers are using learner-centered teaching will change if students are called out individually, rather than the whole class answering questions. The teacher acts more like a facilitator in a learner-centered environment; however, this teacher was at the focal point of this activity, directing the lesson from the front of the class. The teacher/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986) was somewhat expected as the student concerned had not been paying attention during the activity; however, he stood up to the teacher, which is unusual in Thai culture due to the deference shown to teachers (Klausner, 2000). Normally there is more flexibility in a situation like this (Komin, 1991); however, this is a young child and appears to feel that his ego (Komin, 1991) was threatened.

When comparing the meaning units to the whole (Richards, 2003), I reflected on the problems setting up the lesson with the laptop and speakers. The teacher appeared to not have used the equipment before and I assisted by helping to set up the electronics. I provided a cable that was missing for the speakers. During the class, realia (clothes on hangers) and props (handwritten signs on pieces of paper) did not function properly, which could have been because of the extra stress involved in being observed; however, the students seemed to find the activities different from what they were used to because they did not know what to do and the teacher had to explain many times what was required of

them. To this end, students and teacher seemed to be uncertain of what was going on which corresponds to strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1980) and could lead to a threat to the ego orientation (Komin, 1991) and a loss of face (Persons, 2008) for the teacher, which made the Purposes and Processes of Assessment (Blumberg, 2009) difficult during the lesson as the teacher was having problems confirming what had been taught with this specific student as the student was not engaged with what he was doing (Blumberg, 2009) and was cognitively challenged with the activity (Hofstede, 1986) as he did not want to speak English and was not having fun (Komin, 1991).

To conclude this example, in relation to the research questions, this meaning unit of a student refusing to take part in the lesson by coming out to the front of the class demonstrated high Power Distance and strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1980), as the Role of the Teacher was teacher-centered and the student was not engaged with the activity (Blumberg, 2009). The student felt his ego was threatened as well as his interdependence orientation (Komin, 1991), and was cognitively challenged by the activity, with a teacher-centered teacher/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986), as he was now not part of the Collectivist (Hofstede, 1980) group as before.

Regarding the main study, it is imperative to point out that the data analysis of observations and the first round of interviews took place at the same time allowing for meaning units to appear and gave rise to gaps in data that needed to be fed by secondary interviews with the participant teachers. Field notes were made of observations as they occurred and on review of the videos. This was the same for the interviews with the teachers and with the group student interviews. As detailed earlier in this chapter, these notes were numbered and kept in long hand in an indexed book. Additional notes were taken on a notepad, with pages ripped out and inserted into the indexed book at the relevant sections. During the analysis phase of this research, the fieldnotes were referred to

in conjunction with the observation grids as well as the transcriptions for the teacher interviews and group student interviews. An example of the fieldnotes is contained at Appendix B.

A thematic analysis of the teacher interviews (Burgess, et al., 2006) took place looking for meaning units (Ratner, 2002). The results were compared to the classroom action and interactions on the Blumberg (2009) grid analysing the amount of learner-centeredness, and Hofstede's (1986) adjusted problematic learning situations. In addition, Thai cultural traits based on Komin (1991) and Persons (2008) were then used as part of the analysis to answer the research questions.

The data for group student interviews was analysed to identify meaning units from the thematic analysis to assess whether student preferences (Nunan, 1997) and ideas concerning their English language learning related to what teachers believed they required as part of their learner-centered teaching (Blumberg, 2009) and whether these outcomes can be related to Thai culture, for example Hofstede (1980), Komin (1991) and Persons (2008). In addition, the student responses were also analysed to describe the teacher/student and student/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986) that took place in the classroom and behaviour during the group interview process.

The use of cross-cultural learning situations (Hofstede, 1986) is a prominent part of this analysis process as it uses an entity view to culture. This entity view gives preconceived possible behaviours to situations which can be compared and contrasted with what actually happens in the classrooms during the observations, as well as what transpires during the interviews with teachers and students. From a sociocultural perspective, language learning is a developmental process mediated by signs and symbols appropriated in the classroom, where students work within the ZPD as they collaborate through interaction to negotiate

meaning, while at the same time, bringing their values, beliefs, duties and obligations to the process (Donato, 2000).

As mentioned in the last chapter, entity views of culture (Hofstede, 1986), learner-centeredness (Blumberg, 2009), Thai character traits (Komin, 1991) and aspects of face (Persons, 2008) can be compared and contrasted with a sociocultural approach to classroom observations, and teacher and group student interviews analyzing the social interaction between teachers, students and the social structures that envelop them with defined cultural dimensions related to learning and teaching. This analysis has a top-down (entity) and bottom-up (incremental) perspective.

There are layers of human relationships that are sometimes more obvious and go much deeper than the interpretive meaning (Brinkmann & Kvale, 2015). An example of this is the strong relationship between teachers and their students in Thailand (Klausner, 2000). Because of the high esteem in which teachers are held (Komin, 1991), it is visible to observers that this bond exists and that the Power Distance, as explained by Hofstede (1986) between teacher and student is quite high. Both meaning, and a descriptive stance are used for this research to show the complete picture, the part and the whole. According to Atkins & Wallace (2012) the data selected for presentation must be illuminative, indicative, representative and illustrative in order to be used as evidence, therefore, if we look at the ongoing example in Appendix C., this relationship in the classroom must be clarified by categorising the incident of the student not wanting to go out to the front of the class and exemplifying the event to show the reticence of the student, the use of the Isan language to protest why and the reasons why he did not want to take part in the activity.

For this to happen, Atkins & Wallace (2012) explain that during the presentation of evidence, there needs to be a minimising of subjectivity and bias. When dealing with

culture, this can be particularly difficult, especially when researched by someone from a different culture; however, the evaluation of this research can be measured by its authenticity due to the honesty when discussing the value systems deployed by both the researcher and participants, possible biases and how these may affect what is seen and how it is portrayed, as detailed by Friedman (2012). An example was the possibility of different values systems of the researcher and the participants when conducting interviews, in that the researcher is from the west and the participants are from Thailand. Therefore, it is important for this research to put forward what happened as a true reflection of the events that took place, considering the different value systems of the researcher and the teachers and students participating.

Chapter 4 Results and Discussion

As mentioned in the introduction, the teachers' perceptions of learner-centered teaching and how those perceptions are realised in the classroom are the main focus of this investigation, and the possible role that Thai culture plays in this. In addition, students' learning preferences and their relationship to learner-centeredness and Thai culture was also a factor to be considered. The results have been analysed and discussed in relation to the research questions, using emergent themes to group the analysis under headings. The research questions are restated as follows:

1. What are primary school teachers' perceptions of learner centeredness?
2. How do teachers implement learner-centeredness?
3. How is learner-centeredness mediated by Thai culture in and out of the classroom?
4. What are students' perceptions of their learning preferences?
5. How do these preferences relate to learner-centeredness?
6. How are these preferences mediated by Thai culture?

The first section in this chapter presents the primary school teachers' perceptions of learner-centeredness and relates to research question one. The second section shows how teachers implement learner-centeredness in their classrooms and correlates to research question two. The next section portrays the students' perceptions of their learning preferences and the fourth section describes how the students' preferences relate to learner-centeredness in the contexts of research questions four and five respectively. Throughout these sections, the analysis will incorporate how the perception and the use of learner-centered teaching is negotiated by Thai culture, which refers to question six. At the end of each section, there will be the key findings of the analysis in light of the answers to the research questions. It is important to note that the quotes by participants have been

reproduced verbatim, therefore no grammatical corrections have been applied to these quotations in this chapter, nor in the Appendixes.

4.1 What are Primary School Teachers' Perceptions of Learner-centeredness?

The Thai teachers of English who participated in this research explained to varying degrees during their interviews what they understood as learner-centered teaching. The psychological themes (Ratner, 2002) that emerged from the meaning units, explained in the Data Analysis section of the previous paragraph, allows for analysis of the data with a view to learner-centeredness, encompassing varied use of content, student engagement, learning environment, student goals, assessment, and student autonomy (Blumberg, 2009), as well as scaffolding (Senior, 2011), and differentiated learning in relation to aspects of SLA.

When the teachers reflected on their teaching and explained their perceptions of learner-centeredness many differing viewpoints emerged. The subjects covered included making lessons fun and enjoyable, thinking of students as individuals, allowing for learner autonomy, and focusing on the perceived difficulties they were experiencing whilst teaching. Moreover, two teachers explained how they used the Presentation, Production, Practice (PPP) approach to teach their classes, indicating how they perceived this pedagogical strategy as being learner-centered in nature, when there is clear evidence to the contrary (Criado, 2013). Criado (2013) explains that PPP uses the presentation and production phases under a highly teacher controlled environment, allowing a somewhat freer third phase for students to practice through more autonomous and creative activities.

The themes that emerged from the data included the English language levels of the students, the need to combine classes, the lack of qualified English teachers, the

overarching need for vocabulary teaching, the burden of extracurricular activities and administrative duties, and a lack of confidence by both teachers and students. An example of one complete teacher interview in English and Thai is at Appendix O, with selected transcriptions of teacher interviews in English and Thai at Appendix P.

Two teachers explained that making the lessons fun and engaging was an important part of their learner-centered teaching.

“That is good. That is good of because the student if you want to teach excuse me. If you want to learn is open their brain, when we teach, when I teach the student is happy. I think they are happy.” (T1)

“For example, today. Sometime I ask student what you want to learn today. If the student can say I have the one two three they say choose one two three, they choose one, OK, I teach this.” (T1)

“For me, I think we have to make the student not be serious and do everything for them to be happy funny maybe funny, when they study with me they will laugh all.” (T6)

If students are engaged with their lessons in a learner-centered way, then there are more opportunities for them to learn and this will also increase their motivation (Blumberg, 2009). Klausner (2000) explains how Thai people, especially in rural areas view happiness and fun as being interwoven with their work. Work is often called *sanuk* which is Thai for fun. Happy students who are engaged with their lessons have a better chance of acquiring a second language. One way this can be achieved in a learner-centered way is by allowing students to decide what they want to learn, allowing them to determine some of the course content (Blumberg, 2009).

The following teacher sees themselves as being learner-centered sometimes in their classroom by allowing students to choose course content.

“Sometimes.”

“I.. last time about the class Matthayom Three [Grade 9] we learn about dance, I asked them last time we talk about musical instruments and what do you want to know next? They want to know about dance. OK. Next time we study about dance.” (T3)

As well as allowing students some autonomy, some teachers are making choices to provide comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) for their students by allowing them to choose what they want to learn, and scaffolding (Senior, 2011) them through teacher/student and student/student interaction (Long, 1996).

“Yes, when I teach them I ask them what do you want to learn first? What do you want to learn? I will ask before the class starts one hour and what do you want to learn in the next hour there’re choices for them I let them choose when they finish choosing then I’ll pick the most choose choice and then they will prepare what we’re going to learn. If I’m going to teach about family then they will go find and then they will ask questions how to ask this? How to say this?” (T10)

It is important to understand that although the students are choosing the type of input during these situations, it is up to the teacher to ensure that the input is comprehensible by making sure that it is at the right level for the students. If there are different levels of English language skills in the class, for example, when classes are combined, then there

will be a problem in making sure that everyone can achieve $i + 1$ (Krashen, 1985), explained earlier in the Literature Review chapter.

One teacher explained that they did not have a particular approach to teaching, but they considered students as individual learners.

“Not, not, not. I don’t have any special way. It depends on the lesson.

“It depends on the student.”

“I try to make them understand for the main of the lesson.” (T3)

“Does mean focus on the students what they want to know.” (T3)

Another example of teaching approach is where teachers believe that a mixture of both student-centered and teacher-centered teaching may be appropriate in their context, as teachers try to find the right balance for their classes. This teaching approach was explained by Tudor (1996, p. 158) when stating the importance of teachers being adaptable in their classrooms. In the following example, the teacher focuses on the need of the students to be able to understand what has to be achieved first.

“I think student centered and both student centered before we teach them we have to...how to explain.”

“After then let them to think about what I say what let them do let them think themselves.”

“May be with just mind map about the topic for the vocabulary that has animals family member yeah let they do let them make mind map for themselves.”

“When I give the vocabulary give them to remember cause in every lesson they will get about ten or eight word to them for them to remember and use in the lesson.” (T6)

Once the teacher has explained the task, he allows the students a certain amount of autonomy (Blumberg, 2009) in the class in order to think critically, whilst being scaffolded (Senior, 2011) to complete the task, in this case with the use of mind maps to assist the students with the task at hand. T6 scaffolds the students by helping them remember vocabulary, which will be used in the lessons. More examples of this process of using teacher-centered and learner-centered teaching are demonstrated by the teacher in the classroom observation and is explained in more detail in the next section.

Vocabulary was used again to explain perceptions about learner-centered teaching as shown in the following passage.

“Mostly, if you are asking: Is there an objective in each topic? Yes. There’re already set as to what we’re going to teach the children, but mostly the children are from the countryside and don’t know about vocabulary. So, we try to make them learn the most which is by learning all the categories of vocabulary in order to link it to grammar. But I admit that I don’t teach grammar much because the children don’t know the vocabulary, but I prepare each and every topic to teach them and let them know the vocabulary of this topic.” (T7)

She explains that grammar is not a priority in her classes as the students do not have much vocabulary, demonstrating how the needs of the students are given primacy and that vocabulary is her focus which will aid comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985). The reason

given is because the students are from the countryside, indicating that children from the provinces are seen by some as being disadvantaged when it comes to English language learning compared to their urban counterparts (Graham, 2012).

T7 explained further how the students are given a certain amount of autonomy (Blumberg, 2009) to learn by themselves once the initial vocabulary studying has taken place as shown in the following quotation.

“They will learn about the vocabulary first and then they will get the topic of the day to go and study and learn by themselves on the internet. We can let them search and they can read and also use a dictionary. Student-centered learning is where they can learn by themselves, we don’t have to feed them everything. What does this word mean? But they have to look it up by themselves and work together in groups.” (T7)

This activity demonstrates an opportunity for varied use of content, created a learning environment that accommodates different learning styles, and shows flexibility in learning methods in line with the learner-centered dimensions detailed by Blumberg (2009). The students are not left alone, they still have their teacher as a facilitator, demonstrating a more learner-centered teacher/student interaction in the classroom (Hofstede, 1986), allowing for corrective feedback (Long, 1996) by the teacher to take place when the need arises, as the teacher is always nearby.

“Yes. With the teacher watching, but we don’t teach them everything, we let them study by themselves.” (T7)

The situation was clarified by stating that this activity was an extra class taking place three times a week in addition to the students' normal classes. The whole school is together for this activity; however, there are some difficulties. In this example, the younger students appear to have less English ability than the older students, and this causes problems for some of the older students.

“Monday, Wednesday, Friday.”

“The students' problems are that they are all together.”

“All student in the school, the problem is the Prathom One, Prathom Two, Prathom Three [Grades One to Three], they do not know the words.

“Not knowing the vocabulary, it makes the older class exhausted and also confuses them and they will be irritated and annoyed by the younger ones.

But the intention of the teachers, is that they want the older ones to help the younger ones and teach them again but the older ones turn out to be impatient and sometimes the younger students are slower than the older students who get irritated and when they get angry of the younger ones, the younger ones don't want to come and learn. But we are always control it.

These are the problems.” (T7)

Looking at this scenario as a whole, all the classes of the school are together, something that happens three times a week, with the intention that scaffolding (Senior, 2011) is supposed to take place, where the older students are expected to help the younger students until they can work on their own, in a ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978). For the ZPD to be effective in this example, the younger students have to work with their older peers and eventually become more independent as the support is reduced as their knowledge of the vocabulary increases. Their vocabulary knowledge in an ideal situation, would increase as they use and repeat the correct target form with their older peers during the interactions, acting as a

type of corrective feedback. A setting such as this may lead to language acquisition (LaScotte, 2018). However, this was not the case as shown in the following comment.

“Not knowing the vocabulary, it makes the older class exhausted and also confuses them and they will be irritated and annoyed by the younger ones.”
(T7)

By trying to use the older students to support and scaffold the younger students, T7 has found that the older students have become frustrated with the task they have been given, due to the lack of vocabulary of the younger students. The grateful relationships and interdependence orientations, as well as the smooth interpersonal relationships orientation appear more important for the older students than task achievement (Komin, 1990). The younger students appear to be annoying the older students upsetting the normally harmonious environment, considered a priority in Thai culture (Komin, 1991).

“.... but the older ones turn out to be impatient and sometimes the younger students are slower than the older students who get irritated and when they get angry of the younger ones, the younger ones don't want to come and learn.” (T7)

It appears that the older children may see their status in the group as ‘elders’ meaning that they do not have to necessarily help the younger children because of their higher status, classifying themselves as vertical/collectivist in this context (Triandis, 1995). This situation seems to have produced bad feeling and has led to a lack of motivation for the younger students as they become disheartened (LaScotte, 2018) as illustrated by their reluctance to participate in future activities like this. Moreover, Storch (2002) explains how dominant/passive pairs of learners are not the most effective pairing of students as it does

not allow for effective internalisation and transfer of knowledge due to few instances of knowledge being constructed or co-constructed.

The next example by T3 illustrates how some teachers believe that they have a choice as to how they teach, as well as the way they give feedback.

“Yes. They allow me to teach any way that I yeah any way with just can [not heard] and give feed-back.” (T3)

Schools generally allow teachers to teach their students in any way they choose, as long as they produce the required results for the national tests (O-Net). These tests are mainly multiple choice and do not necessarily assist in the development of higher-order thinking and transfer of knowledge (Darasawang & Watson-Todd, 2012). It is important to understand that language policy comes from the government and is passed to schools via provincial offices as explained previously in this study. CLT has attracted admirers over the years and attempts have been made to implement this approach in Thailand due to the similar qualities to that of learner-centered teaching and the potential to encourage autonomous learning (Wongsothorn, et al., 2002).

The previous quotes by T7 and T3 on pages 121-124 illustrate how these teachers have highlighted feedback as an important element of the learning process, whether it is in additional classes for the whole school as explained by T7, or as part of normal classes illustrated by T3. The feedback can take the form of interactional activities which involves student/student interaction as well as feedback from the teacher to the students. These activities are learner-centered when they involve student, teacher and content interaction, the possibility of students’ self-assessment of their strengths and weaknesses, and the teacher’s timeframe for feedback as part of the assessment process (Blumberg, 2009). For

SLA to take effect, input, negotiation for meaning and form, output, and having an awareness of the interaction that has taken place need to register with those who are involved in the interaction, something that has been researched at university level, but not so much for children (Loewen & Sato, 2018). These examples of feedback through various types of interactional activities taking place involve students, teachers and content as well as providing the necessary timeframe for feedback (Blumberg, 2009), Long's (1996) Interactional Hypothesis, and Hofstede's (1986) patterns of student/student and teacher/student cross-cultural interactions.

In another scenario, T1 explained his teaching strategy to manage a class when students were at different levels of attainment and ability.

“Like if the children are at different levels. This year is the first year, we separated the children into two groups, the clever group and the weak group. The clever group goes fast and are very good and the weak group when I teach them, I don't concentrate on having it all written down. If they understand then we move on, if they don't we will repeat it again first. When they understand then we move on, if they don't, the weak group will not finish.” (T1)

This teacher is describing a form of differentiated learning, without using the specific terminology. Differentiated learning is described by Tomlinson & Imbeau (2010) as a philosophy where the emphasis is balanced between course content and the student, allowing for the adaptation of the content, the process, the product and the affect, based on the readiness, the interest and the learning profile of the students in the class.

By conducting his class in this way, T1 has varied the use of content and created a better learning environment for his class, as he is catering for the different abilities of his students. This context is a transition from teacher-centered toward learner-centered teaching (Blumberg, 2009) and this teacher has demonstrated his understanding of differentiated learning, where his students are given work at different levels of difficulty so it is possible for learning to take place for all the students in his class. What is particularly significant about this situation, is that the concept of differentiated learning is not that well understood in Thailand (Kiddle, 2014). This strategy aligns course content with student needs, which may motivate students to learn by engaging them in course content appropriate for student learning goals (Blumberg, 2009).

Two teachers explained how they used the PPP teaching approach to teach their classes, but they have differing ideas as to whether they perceive themselves as learner-centered teachers. One teacher (T8) explained that she learned English at school in a teacher-centered way, but she learned about her teaching strategies from her MA TESOL degree studies.

“Translation the most and PPP lesson plan.”

“The way I think the way I learn English because the way I learn I learn as my natural that I have a basic, basic practice them.”

“Teacher centered last thirty years ago, ok at grammar.” (T8)

From the above passage, it is clear that T8 believes that PPP is learner-centered and she contrasts this pedagogical strategy with teacher-centeredness from thirty years previous. When T8 was asked about where she learned her teaching strategies, she explained that it was when she was studying for her MA TESOL.

“From my study MA TESOL.” (T8)

Asked whether she considered herself a learner-centered teacher, she indicated yes.

“Yeah.” (T8)

T10 also uses PPP for her lessons.

“I teach them three P [PPP]”

“Because Dr. Ying teach me.”

“And she give the technique to how to teach student.” (T10)

However, when asked whether she considered herself a learner-centered teacher, she said that she did not.

“No.”

“I told the student every time when I before I teach them ahh what do you want to learn? What topic do you want?” (T10)

Both teachers were taught to use the 3Ps or PPP by their teachers at university. Criado (2013) explains that PPP is not a method or approach; it is an adult pedagogical teaching strategy, which is teacher controlled at the presentation and production phases and somewhat freer at the practice phase due to the use of discussions, debates and roleplays. In the Thai context, it is possible that PPP is seen as a transition toward learner-centeredness from teacher-centered teaching. Swan (2005) details how this strategy is used for the presentation of structural features and their practice until the time that, under semi-controlled conditions, they can be re-created comfortably and fast. However, one important

negative characteristic is that there is an overt focus on forms rather than on meaning and when compared to the more communicative learner-centered teaching, there is limited risk taking due to its focus on accuracy and correctness (Criado, 2013). In addition, there were not many opportunities for students to acquire the language (Krashen, 1982) during this process. This focus on correctness is an important cultural trait of Thai teachers of English and is explained in detail by Boriboon (2013) when researching Thai teachers' positioning concerning ownership of English in the upper north-eastern region of Thailand. This could be perceived as a face-saving mechanism (Persons, 2008), producing a paradox in that there is great difficulty in Thai teachers pursuing 'correct' native-speaker like English and the rest of the ASEAN region which believes that English as a lingua franca should be owned by everyone who uses it (Baker, 2012a). Demotivation and a lack of engagement could ensue, with little chance of learner-centeredness being present, affecting both students and teachers.

Moving on from the PPP approach, some teachers believe that there are some situations where students need to be led, otherwise there would be no purpose in what they do.

“Student centered, if we let the children to do whatever they want to do, that can't be happening. We have to set a purpose for them, purpose of learning first and let the children follow. If letting the children learn by themselves, that cannot be done. We have to lead them to the purpose of learning first, because we can't maintain student centered, we have to lead them.” (T5)

According to the Thai cultural traits discussed earlier in the Literature Review, this teacher appears to maintain high Power Distance to ensure strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1980) for her students, possibly to retain the responsibility for learning

(Blumberg, 2009), as she seems to believe that the students would not know what to do if allowed more autonomy.

When asked whether she could see some aspects of learner-centeredness in her teaching, T5 stated that she did not.

“Can see? No. If the purpose is that we teach the children to understand and can do their exercises, then we can assume the children are okay and we see that at least they understand how to do it.” (T5)

Teachers explained the difficulties their students experienced in their classrooms.

“The children at school still cannot speak in sentences yet. Only just vocabulary because one to ten children still cannot. Right now, I’m teaching about vowels, the children hardly have any vocabulary.” (T2)

This teacher infers that the students have a very low level of English and that they are lacking sentence level English. A shortage of vocabulary has been identified as a primary problem for her students and resonates with previous examples of how teachers are using vocabulary in this section.

“Yes. There are easy conversation sentences but not having the children to make up new sentences. But we say, good morning, some greetings, introducing themselves sentences. I do teach sometimes about making new sentences, but to really learn it, the children cannot do it yet.” (T2)

It was not clear whether this teacher understood what learner-centered teaching means, or whether she was not able to express herself concerning the subject; however, she was concentrating on teaching vowels and was concerned about the lack of vocabulary her students had. T2 is concerned that many of her students are not able to speak sentences yet, so she has decided to focus on vowels and vocabulary to enhance the chances that comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) takes place. The teacher has demonstrated that she is transitioning from teacher-centered to learner-centered by varying the use of content and using content to facilitate future learning (Blumberg, 2009).

There is a concern that the class that she teaches is Prathom Five (Grade Five) and the curriculum (The Ministry of Education, Thailand, 2008) would have them placed at a higher level of English language ability, indicating that there is the possibility that the curriculum requirements may not be met, which is a subject dealt with later in this section.

“Problems they, most of them don’t understand but I try a lot. Sometimes they talk in class. Most of them cannot read in English.” (T3)

This teacher explained how her students cannot read English, which affects the amount of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985); however, these are very young students. She was asked if they could read Thai and she stated they could not.

“Cannot.” (T3)

When given the opportunity to explain their understanding of learner-centered teaching, the teachers explained the difficulties that they have which begs the question as to the best time and the purpose for the introduction of a second language when the first language has possibly not been learned to a sufficient standard. English is taught from the first year of

Primary School in Thailand and continues through the twelve years of free education available (Foley, 2005). Although the critical period for first language acquisition finishes around puberty, there is some argument as to whether this is the same for a second or foreign language (Marinova-Todd, et al., 2000).

Moreover, Collier (1992) conducted a synthesis of studies and concluded that instruction in the first language is considerably more crucial to that of the second language when aiming for literacy in the desired second language. There is another cultural element to consider, the local dialect Isan is used as the language at home, so it could be said that Isan is the first language (Draper, 2012b), Thai the second and used as the medium of instruction at school and English possibly the third, which demonstrates the differences experienced by students in the rural northeast of Thailand compared to urban Bangkok, where policy decisions are made and resources are more plentiful (Graham, 2012). The teaching of English is taking a more important role in both language policy and practice in Thailand, due to becoming the working language of ASEAN and inclusion in the draft version of the National Language Policy (Baker, 2017). Moving away from Anglophone versions of English to a more multilingual model of English as a lingua franca is believed by Baker (2017) to be the way to improve both the perceptions and the proficiency of English in Thailand.

The teachers that participated in this research continued to focus on the problems they were facing in their classrooms to explain what they understood as learner-centeredness. It appears that not all the students seem engaged in classroom activities.

“I think 80% they like my style but the student is different someone we had a problem for English this have, they want to listen they don’t want to act

don't like to speak. they want to do when I teach in my activity sometime they act out.” (T1)

Students appear to take a more passive role in classroom interaction. In Thai culture, to speak could make a student look foolish if they made a mistake, causing them to lose face (*kiat*- respect and approval) (Persons, 2008), and this could affect their egos (Komin, 1991). This passivity results in reduced student output, so as a result, they will not internalise their language by testing their hypothesis, their consciousness awareness or metalinguistic functions in line with the Output Hypothesis (Swain, 1995).

The teacher was also aware that there could be a chance to offer extra assistance to students who require it after class allowing closer student/teacher interaction (Hofstede, 1986), an opportunity for corrective feedback through interaction (Long, 1996) and student engagement with the content (Blumberg, 2009).

“If ever see the student have a problem after finish the class, I stay with them. it is English it is a skill English it have listening speaking writing reading, you make this you must do in English and sometime you act out because I want you remember, you act out it help you remember about the English.” (T1)

T1 believes that by using the target language, the students have a better chance of remembering what they have learned in line with the Monitor Model (Krashen, 1982). The teacher is motivating the students to take more responsibility for their learning (Blumberg, 2009) demonstrating higher level transitions to learner-centered teaching.

The lack of engagement (Blumberg, 2009) in classroom activity was highlighted by another teacher as an area of concern. According to Blumberg (2009), learner-centered teaching gives students increased opportunities to assume responsibility for their own learning; however, this was not the case as she explained what happened recently in her English language class.

“Well if at school, there are normal activities in the morning for them to express themselves. Sometimes I don’t have to tell them to do it they already know their jobs and they will do it by themselves and they know. Before class like that day [The day of the observation when the students were not very forthcoming with their speaking], I was shocked. Normally what I used to do was to speak to them and they have already done it. Sometimes it shocks me as to why they don’t say anything.” (T4)

T4 had expected her students to take more responsibility for their learning (Blumberg, 2009), as she did not normally have to explain to them what to do; however, she was disappointed in the performance of her students when the class was observed, as they normally speak in class. The teacher was reassured that this was probably due to the research process and that her students possibly did not feel comfortable in the learning environment they found themselves due to the possible uncertainty of the situation (Hofstede, 1986). The reticence of the students to answer questions could conceivably affect the teacher’s ego (Komin, 1991), as her authority as the teacher has possibly been challenged due to the performance of the students, hence her apparent feeling of frustration at what happened.

Another teacher had similar feelings while trying to teach her class, but for different reasons. She was not able to explain learner-centered teaching in much detail; however,

she did share details of her teaching background, and her own perceived limited English language ability.

“Well, I didn’t exactly graduate from being an English teacher, but the school has a lack of teachers to teach English. I graduated IT and I’m not good at it but I like it, I get to learn with the children but the knowledge about English to give for the children to be honest it’s not more than my ability.” (T2)

She does not believe that she is competent at English; however, she does what she can for her students, which appears to be the focus of many of the teachers interviewed for this study. Further complications due to lack of English teachers at schools were highlighted by other teachers.

“Another problem is that in the whole school, there’s only one English teacher and sometimes the Prathom One to Prathom Four [Grade One to Grade Four] children don’t get to learn with the teacher. They barely learn any English and then they start learning in Prathom Five and Prathom Six [Grade Five and Grade Six]. They don’t get to learn so they look backward if you compare them with other schools because there are less teachers.”
(T7)

It appears that not much emphasis is put into English language learning for the students in the early years, due to the lack of resources which are concentrated in the latter years of primary school, possibly because the National Examinations (O-Net tests) start from the sixth year of primary school. The report by OECD/UNESCO (2016) highlights how the system of standardised testing may not necessarily follow the aims of the curriculum it is

supposed to shadow. This creates a huge problem when students arrive in their fourth year and have not completed the first three years of the English curriculum. There would have been a lack of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) during these years, little chance for corrective feedback and interaction (Long, 1996), reducing the amount of comprehensible output (Swain, 1995). Teachers may well be facing students who are considerably behind where the curriculum expects them to be.

This may be a result of there being a shortage of qualified English teachers in Thailand (Hayes, 2010). The teachers in this study explained how difficult it was for them to teach English in a learner-centered way due to there not having been English teachers at schools for some time.

“Teacher at this school don’t have English teacher for thirty years, since right at the beginning, they used to have two classes together. Just now, they like, they just start English, that’s why

 (T10)

Many learning hours are lost because of a lack of qualified teachers (Mackenzie, 2004), resulting in more pressure being put on teachers to complete the curriculum on time. One way to cope is to combine small classes.

“The children don’t have an English teacher for thirty years now and they haven’t learned the basics since kindergarten, before there’re only three teachers that have to combine the classes. So it seems like starting all over again.” (T10)

“When I come here, I know the problems of the student at this school. I taught them with the basics in English A-B-C, capital letters small letters, they don’t know about the capital letter and small letter English so ...” (T4)

“The curriculum right? Well it’s...”

“I think it’s different.”

“Well it’s already different.”

“For student in Prathom Three and Four it’s various content.”

“I’m trying to integration it trying to comprehensive which is similar to. When we get the work sheets learning sheets we try to look for what we can use that is similar to each other not different and when we teach we teach in the same hour. If we emphasize that much on the curriculum we can’t use it with our children yet, they’re not that expert. We look out for the work sheets learning sheets that fit with their level.” (T4)

T10 students did not have a designated English teacher before she came, so it is unlikely that her Year Four students had curriculum based English language lessons for the previous three years. This would possibly impact the Year Four students’ development as well as T10, especially when classes are combined. T4 looks for similarities between the two curriculums for the two grades of students and then teaches what she can in the hour that is available for teaching that week. This may have an adverse effect on the amount of the curriculum that can be covered by these teachers, as indicated by the teachers themselves.

“*[laughing]* Fifty, fifty percent.” (T10)

“About seventy percent.” (T4)

“For me, I can do about eighty to ninety percent in curriculum.” (T6)

The above statements demonstrate the teachers' situation regarding how their English curriculum is implemented in their schools. The top-down management style of the Thai education system (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2000) reflects The Second Way (Hargreaves & Shirley, 2009), in that the teachers are under pressure to achieve targets, such as the O-Net tests and performance standards (fulfilling curriculum requirements); however, they are being squeezed by the combined classes they have to teach and a lack of qualified English teachers.

T6 confirms this predicament, by complaining about the low level of English that his students have when they first arrive in his class. He blames this on the previous teachers who have not graduated in English and so his students are not best prepared to study at his level.

“Because the students that they send to me, they have no standard.” (T6)

This is common knowledge throughout Thai society; however, this is shouldered by those concerned as nobody loses face when they accept their fate as Karma (Komin, 1991). The following teacher believes that more training for English teachers who graduated in subjects other than English should be given.

“I think they could send the teacher that's not graduate in major English to study English such as teacher from Prathom One, Two, Three (Grades One, Two, Three) to study English maybe to seminar.” (T6)

Noopong (2002) believes that sixty-five percent of primary school teachers are teaching English even though they have not majored in the subject, with English language skills below that required to be effective. T6 was asked by the researcher whether the training

should be for English language or whether it should be for how to teach English and he stated he wanted both.

“I think both.”

“It’s very important.” (T6)

T6 believes that the teachers required training in how to teach English, and the teachers’ levels of English language skills were not at the required level.

The number of hours that students learn English every week, was also explained by the teachers, normally one hour a week for Grades One to Three and two hours a week for Grades Four to Six (The Ministry of Education, Thailand, 2008).

“Two,two.”

“Sometimes. [*laughing*]” (T10)

When asked to explain further, she spoke of other activities that had to be accounted for.

“Some activities, such as sports days and”

“Teacher days.” (T10)

She was asked if there were many of these days. She laughed as she answered the question.

“Yes. [*laughing*]” (T10)

She was asked if there was much administrative work for teachers to do as well.

“Yes.”

“Very big. [*smiling*]”

“[*laughing*] Everyone.” (T10)

When analysing the interview with this teacher, it was clear from her laughter, that she was somewhat embarrassed about the amount of hours and the extra duties she has to perform. Her laughter was to save face (Persons, 2008) over this difficult situation. Extracurricular activities and lack of teaching time was echoed by another teacher. T6 highlighted the second semester as being particularly troublesome as there were more non-academic activities at this time. This is the same for all schools in Thailand as there are more festivals at this time of year.

“In one year? Sometimes I can, but sometimes I ... because the teachers have been with the students all time just the first term. In the second term, we have many activities such as Boy Scouts and sport.” (T6)

These additional activities were highlighted by Foley (2005) as common among English language teachers in Thailand and by Mackenzie (2004) specifically in the northeast of Thailand, resulting in so much teaching time being lost for these non-academic activities (von Feigenblatt, et al., 2010). Teachers are obliged to engage in these activities and they replace the existing schedule, so that Thai teachers who teach English to primary school children sometimes have no English classes as their classes that week have been sacrificed.

The teacher education programs in Thailand have been recognised as being inadequate, as there appears to be a lack of strategy when approaching the professional development of teachers, with many extra administrative duties that could impact classroom teaching time (OECD/UNESCO, 2016). Culturally, these activities are extremely important, especially

since social harmony takes precedence over productivity in this educational setting (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2001). A lot of time is given to these activities and most teachers see them as being academic in nature as they cover festivals, holidays and other cultural events. In addition, there are sports days and scouts, which are also time consuming and sometimes take priority.

The directives for these school activities come from the school directors who in turn receive their instructions from the local area offices and the provincial offices. They receive their instructions from the Ministry of Education via OBEC (The Office of the Basic Education Commission). At all levels of Thailand's education system, there will be a reluctance to question policy, as there is a culture of compliance (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2001). This hierarchical nature of the Thai education system, Thai society in general (Komin, 1990) and the enjoyment of the activities ensure that a considerable amount of time is spent on non-academic activities, resulting in the designated curriculum not necessarily being covered during the academic year. This leads to a vicious circle due to the no-fail policy in Thailand where students do not fail, so they progress to the next stage of their education (Halligan, 2011). Some students could never complete a full year of study, on a yearly basis, and this puts more pressure on teachers as they require more preparation time for learner-centered teaching, they have less time due to the extra activities, and students require more help due to the no fail policy.

Another teacher explains how she has to spend a lot of time preparing lessons as she teaches many subjects and how extra-curricular activities affect her time.

“I think I teach a lot of things and a lot of subjects, to prepare have to prepare lots of subjects.”

“Sometimes there're a lot of activities coming in.” (T9)

The interpreter clarified at this stage.

“The problem she have that because she have a lot of subject she teach all the subject not just English and sometime she have other work to do too like the paper work and if more than that their have other activities extra activities come to school that is the problem.” (Interpreter)

This teacher admits to having difficulty with pronunciation herself.

“I have been to teaching language experience training and I use it for the children to memorize like [not heard]”

“Mostly using videos to help with remembering sentences and pronunciation and there’re also Gloria books that we use a pen to press the words. I can’t pronounce it correctly so I have to use it” (T9)

Problems with pronunciation and a lack of confidence were mentioned by many teachers and their selected transcriptions including the Thai language dialogues concerning the subject are at Appendix Q. One teacher explained how Thai people are shy by nature; however, if teachers have studied English, then they would be more confident than those who hadn’t.

“Yes, I do agree. Because the cultural of Thailand is, ..make the Thai people is shy I think.”

“If the English teacher if they study about the English and they teach English for student I think they are confident then confident but if they

don't study English don't like English but they teach I think they not too confident." (T1)

"I think most people be shy."

"Lack confidence too." (T9)

When analysing the relationship of Thai culture in the learner-centered classroom, using dimensions by Hofstede (1986), character traits by Komin (1991), and aspects of face by Persons (2008), it is possible to see that it is a multitude of dimensions, traits and aspects combined that make Thai people appear to lack confidence. It is not just one aspect of culture, it depends on the context and the group dynamics of the classroom or outside of it.

"Yes. I feel that I don't have confident to pronounce or the vocabulary which I didn't graduate English what I've learnt is just extra and I do know approximant but not deep, which teaching English has to be deep for example pronunciation what is the meaning of this word which I only know just the general vocabulary but if we teach we have to know the vocabularies in there which I use my time teaching by opening the dictionary all the time too. I'm not confident when I'm teaching but if it's my own subject I do have confidence which I can compare myself." (T2)

This teacher majored in IT, she feels that she lacks confidence when speaking English as she has difficulty remembering the vocabulary as well as dealing with the pronunciation, which is not the case if she is teaching her own subject in Thai. This must put a great deal of pressure on her as she wants to do what is best for her students, but she has to check everything first and so loses confidence. This loss of confidence could affect her ego (Komin, 1991) and lead to a feeling of uncertainty (Hofstede, 1986) in the classroom. This

could result in a more teacher-centered approach to teaching (Blumberg, 2009) to compensate due to some teachers reverting to teach the way that they were taught (Lortie, 1975) when experiencing difficulties. Some teachers compare themselves to the students.

“The same. The same as children.” [*laughing*]

“If they have more confident in themselves they can speak English.” (T3)

“This I do agree with because one even just not the students, but older people do lack confidence because we don’t know the language don’t know the vocabulary don’t have the confident on am I saying it right or wrong? And so it gets nervous it’s like we don’t know anything and not assertive it out.” (T7)

Once again, not being able to pronounce the vocabulary is important in contributing to the lack of confidence in teachers, which causes a certain amount of anxiety, which is likely to affect the amount of comprehensible output (Swain, 1995) produced by the teachers themselves. T7 highlights, teachers who have not graduated as English majors, who do not know if they are teaching correctly.

“The teachers in Prathom school small school the teacher who didn’t graduate English major has to teach English some don’t know still get to teach and not knowing that am I teaching it correctly? There’re a lot that are lack confidence.” (T7)

However, not everyone agrees.

“Some teacher if their graduated from English language they’re to speak in English more some teacher, ..they do great in English, ..but some people doesn’t graduated English language they confident themselves to speak English more than English teacher from graduated English language.” (T4)

Interestingly, T4 believes that it does not matter if you have graduated as an English major, it is possible to speak English if you have confidence.

When asked about the confidence of the teachers, the following teacher initially referred back to the students by stating that the teachers were the same as the students. She then explains about the use of English in the classroom by the teachers.

“Same.” [*laughing*]

“Some of them some, many most of them don’t use English in class but they have their knowledge about English.” (T3)

Having the knowledge but not using English in class could result in a lack of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) for the students, leading to less interaction and the opportunity of corrective feedback (Long, 1996). Students will not be motivated to use English in the classroom if their teacher does not show them the way. Teachers not speaking English can also be a problem for teachers when they meet other teachers.

“With Thai people it’s the same when they meet the strangers or the one they don’t know each other with the teacher sometime they just only smile they don’t talk anything but with their friend or anything they teacher just only listen what they are talking about. They lack of confident.” (T8)

This would be an ideal time for teachers to practice their English, when they meet as friends or when they meet people from outside the school, as it would seem to be in a context of low anxiety and uncertainty; however, this is not the case. Social hierarchy in Thailand (Klausner, 2000) dictates various positions of agents in a conversation. It is difficult for Thai people to have conversations in Thai when a person's position is not known. It can be deduced that it must be even more problematic when a conversation is conducted in a foreign language, for example due to the different pragmatics (Foley, 2005), when teachers are not confident in their language skills and do not want to lose face (Persons, 2008). If teachers were to successfully practice their English outside of the classroom, they may be able to increase their confidence levels and speak English in the classroom with more belief in themselves.

One teacher believes that she has a lack of vocabulary as she teaches young children and doesn't have the confidence to speak as she doesn't get the chance to practice her English and to use more advanced vocabulary.

“I think too, for me only cause for me I teach Prathom One to Prathom Six I don't have opportunity to speak English too, so sometime I feel shy I don't have any vocabulary to speak out.” (T8)

In the classroom, this teacher believes her students lack confidence because they are not able to speak like native-speakers and neither can the teachers.

“They so shy and cannot speak out well and they pronunciation not as the same as the foreigner or native speaker because of Thai teacher, we need to practice from the computer.” (T8)

She believes that teachers can practice by using computers to listen to the pronunciation of English to improve their language skills. Another teacher (T4) explains how she lacks confidence to speak to foreigners from Germany in English because she finds it difficult to understand them.

“Sometime I think I’m shy to speak in English with the foreigners especially from the foreigner from German, I can’t to understand when they speak in English. Yeah, I told them to speak slowly please or pardon? Okay to understand for that they speak with me.”

“The pronunciations the sound that I don’t understand some words.” (T4)

T4 gave an example of how she has difficulty understanding some accents. It does appear that although there is difficulty, she is motivated to speak because the person she is speaking to is a foreigner. She states that she tries speaking simple English to her students.

“I think I’m confident to translated English to Thai for our student on the first time when I coming to this classroom I try to speak in English with them to greetings them, Hello, how are you?” (T4)

She does have confidence to speak to her students; however, it is at a basic level based on greetings. She is prepared to go beyond that level to speak to a foreigner and appears motivated to do so. The context of these two situations are very different. In the classroom, the teacher is the authority figure (Deveney, 2005); however, when speaking to a foreigner outside, she is not. This change of environment alters the interaction patterns of the agents, as the teacher becomes motivated and has less uncertainty due to the context. It is possible that going beyond the comfort zone in her classroom may infringe on her Uncertainty

Avoidance dimension (Hofstede, 1986), which in turn could be a threat to her ego (Komin, 1991).

T5 thinks that Thai teachers are also at a disadvantage because of their accents.

“It is about how speak. That is the difference. How to say the word? I can’t remember right now. Foreigner speaks like native speakers, speak English most time. Thai teachers, they, maybe when they speak, they pronounce different from foreigner teachers. Thai teachers still have their accents.”

“For me, I think I am not confident to the students because, I think accent about English make meaccent Thai sometime.” (T5)

Speaking English with a heavy Thai accent makes English sound more like Thai according to the previous teacher. She believes that Thai teachers of English make many mistakes and are embarrassed and just carry on with what they are saying. This perception that they are making many mistakes is demotivating for the teachers as they are striving for perfection with their pronunciation (Methitham & Chamcharatsri, 2011). She was asked whether the students wanted native-speaker pronunciation and that her Thai accent was perceived as not as good as a native-speaker accent.

“I think so, I think that. (T5)

The idea that Thai teachers of English should try to sound like native speakers of English is not new (Jindapitak, 2014). Boriboon (2013) believes that it is a focus on accuracy that pushes teachers to believe that native-speaker-like pronunciation is what should be strived for. In Thailand, pronunciation is not something that is given too much attention in Thai education, as priority is reserved for reading, writing, listening and speaking (Khamkhien,

2010). The previous teacher makes the comparison between her Thai accent and that of a native speaker. This comparison makes the teacher believe that there is a deficit between the pronunciation that she can produce and that of a native speaker, which makes her lose confidence. This can be perceived as a direct threat to her ego (Komin, 1991) and creates uncertainty. She feels that her students want to hear a native-speaker accent and that compounds the problem for her.

By not having the opportunity to speak to native-speakers of English, one teacher believes that this situation contributes to a lack of confidence in the students too.

“Yeah, I agree because they don’t have opportunity to speak out with the native speaker this is the first they don’t have opportunity to speak up make them lack of confident.” (T8)

The above teacher has highlighted a lack of opportunities to speak to foreigners, which she considers, would serve as comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) for her students. This, she believes, contributes to a lack of confidence in her students. She thinks that her students could be encouraged to speak more and be more confident if they were to have a foreign teacher with what she perceives as being the ‘correct’ pronunciation.

According to many of the teachers in this study, students appear to lack confidence, which could also affect learner-centeredness in the classroom, especially the student/teacher interaction (Hofstede, 1986). There could be some problems when teachers ask questions in the classroom as the students may not seem to have the confidence to be able to deal with being asked questions, as culturally, this is different from what would happen in a more traditional type of classroom (Vaiyavutjamai & Clements, 2006). Equally, there could be difficulties in students asking questions too.

“Some student don’t think.”

“Don’t think at all.”

“Don’t have the idea for question or ask question.” (T10)

In Thailand, asking or answering questions in the classroom may be considered as showing off, or acting foolishly in front of their friends (Deveney, 2005). In Thai culture, asking questions can be perceived as a challenge to the teacher, who is the authority; and students, the passive recipients of knowledge (Torok & Waugh, 2006).

The above quotation from T10 demonstrates how the teacher believes that some students do not even think to ask questions. In a more traditional classroom (Vaiyavutjamai & Clements, 2006), Power Distance needs to be high for strong Uncertainty Avoidance to remain for the students (Hofstede, 1986), allowing for the teacher’s ego (Komin, 1991) and status to remain unchallenged. In these types of classroom, students expect the teacher to start the communication, students speak when asked by the teacher, remembering not to contradict or criticize publicly (Hofstede, 1986). Both teachers and students can save face (Persons, 2008), and maintain their smooth interpersonal relationship (Komin, 1991), in a harmonious environment in line with Komin’s (1990) achievement task orientation rating so low in her study. Second language acquisition may be stifled when there is limited interaction taking place (Long, 1996), and little comprehensible output (Swain, 1995).

Asking and answering questions will make a student stand out from the rest of the class. In doing so, students are at risk of losing face if they make a mistake, which would add to a lack of confidence.

“Yes. The children are not assertive because they’re afraid their friends would make fun of them or with something they’re not confident with. They don’t have confidence to speak English so they’re not assertive.” (T2)

In this situation, it is possible for students to lose face (Persons, 2008), by having their driving force and honour - *kiat* threatened, which would also threaten their ego (Komin, 1991), among their group of friends - *chuesiang* (Persons, 2008).

This lack of confidence and shyness are explained again in the following quotation from T3.

“They don’t shy but they don’t have the confidence in themselves to speak English.”

“Sometime I agree with for this questions because some students from this class Prathom Three and Prathom Four quite shy when they used to speak English language ...” (T3)

Many of the teachers in this investigation believe that students are shy to speak English and lack confidence, but this can change when the students are motivated by something, for example, when speaking to a foreigner.

“Think that the children are shy to speak English.”

“First I agree, I do agree but if the children get to learn and practice they will have more courage for example Ronald came to teach English for ten days the children had the courage to speak courage to speak more and...”

“Talk about English say hello say hi to Ronald, Ronald come here to teach English in summer with confident to speak English to him yeah very good.”
(T5)

One teacher believes that not all students are lacking in confidence when speaking English and that sometimes Thai teachers contribute to their students’ lack of confidence.

“Some student. Just some not all.”

“For Thai teachers, I think most of Thai teachers they have many lot of student make the student to be afraid and unable to do their ability to do it. We have to give them a chance to show their feeling.” (T6)

From this statement, the teacher thinks that Thai teachers of English need to be more supportive of their students to encourage them to speak English. If students are afraid to speak, then they will not speak about how they feel, impacting the teacher/student and student/student interaction required for effective language learning to take place. In a learner-centered environment, students need to be engaged in the content in an environment that accommodates different learning styles and the ability to learn from mistakes (Blumberg, 2009). By being encouraged to interact and receive feedback from their peers or their teacher (Long, 1996), students are able to express themselves and gain confidence as they learn.

The following extract from T10 states that whilst some students are shy, there are some students who simply do not know how to speak English.

“I do agree because every students some are shy this shy is their personal habits but another group aren’t shy they just don’t know how to speak want they want to say which is lack confidence [not heard]. (T10)

This data illustrates why there is a lack of confidence in using English by the students, similar to a study by Noom-ura (2013), which explains that students become demotivated to learn English when they are struggling to learn. Draper (2012a) deliberates as to whether English is relevant in the northeast of Thailand, as it is not part of a student’s daily routine. This lack of confidence is compounded by English not being used outside the classroom due to there being a lack of opportunities to use the language other than in class (Sermsonswad & Tantipongsanuruk, 2013). This situation does not facilitate future learning (Blumberg, 2009), so when the students try to learn English, it demotivates them as they believe that English is only required for their tests and academic study.

One teacher spoke about the difficulties for her students in using English outside the classroom.

“Many problems because they don’t have the family about their family the family some they live with grandmother grandfather or some live with father and mother, some parents they don’t know any English they don’t have time to teach their children to learn so they cannot develop themselves quickly.” (T8)

This teacher eluded to the problems that the students face by not having the opportunity to use English with their family in the home. Students stay with grandparents and with mothers and fathers who lack the English language skills to converse with their children in English in the home. An important part of learner-centered teaching is where students have

the chance to practice outside the classroom as part of their daily life (Doyle, 2011), which could increase the chances of language acquisition taking place (Krashen, 1982).

Whilst this could be said for many non-English speaking countries, Thailand could have made English a second language, but decided against the idea (Tayjasanant & Robinson, 2014). This is regrettable as it may have given the population the chance to use the language more as part of their daily routine. This was echoed by another teacher who believes that students do not have the opportunity to use English outside the classroom.

“Because I think that they don’t have a chance to use English in their daily life they only use with teachers only in English class.”

“They can’t use in their daily life such as when they go back to home their parent cannot speak English.” (T3)

There is a lack of opportunities to learn English in this region. T3 explains that the only time they use English is with their teacher. The northeast region, commonly called Isan, has the largest ethnic minority in Thailand (mainly Laos and Khmer ethnicity); however, minorities do not do well educationally in Thailand’s two-tier education system (Draper, 2012b). It appears that this may be true for the teachers. It is difficult for them to speak English to anyone outside the classroom (Dhanasobhon, 2010). This creates a problem where both teachers and students lack the confidence to use English in the Thai social context, where English is not a regular medium of communication.

In summary, the Thai teachers of English who participated in this study do not seem to have a workable definition of learner-centered teaching. They put forward details of what they do for their students in the context of where they are, who they deal with and how they cope, emphasising the difficulties that they experience. Teachers try to make students

happy, and to understand the main points of the lessons, so they focus on what the students want to know and what they believe they need to know, for example, vocabulary.

The teachers see themselves as learner-centered at times and teacher-centered at other times. This is a result of the Balance of Power and the Function of Content (Blumberg, 2009) being more teacher-centered most times, achieved by maintaining high Power Distance and strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1986) in the classroom, especially when teachers are focusing on comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985).

Teachers with Masters' degrees appeared more aware of learner-centeredness, with two teachers stating they used the PPP method of teaching, which is not necessarily conducive to learner-centeredness as the drilling of lexis and structure synonymous with the PPP approach is considered by some to be detrimental to language acquisition (Tasseron, 2015).

The teachers focused on the problematic areas of their teaching which seemed to hinder their learner-centeredness. This included the many different subjects prepared by the teachers, the combining of classes, as well as a considerable amount of administration and extra curricula activities, which infringes on the time used for teaching English as they take priority, impacting the amount of the English language curriculum that can be completed. As English is not widely used outside of the classroom, this reduction in hours could affect the students' opportunities to learn, and the facilitation of future learning (Blumberg, 2009) and restrict the amount of interactional feedback (Long, 1996) and comprehensible output (Swain, 1995) for second language acquisition to take place (Krashen, 1982).

Many schools do not have English teachers and so the students do not learn the curriculum content for several years and then teachers have to attempt to make up that deficit, adhering to the no-fail policy that exists in Thailand (Nonkukhetkhong, et al., 2006). A

situation such as this could lead to a lack of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985), as students would be at the incorrect level for their skills.

Because of the young age of the students, teachers believed it was difficult for students to be responsible for their own learning (Blumberg, 2009) and also thought that they should not be free to learn as they wish. This demonstrates a perception by some teachers that learner-centered teaching allows too much freedom and points toward a misunderstanding about scaffolding (Senior, 2011) and how to facilitate learner-centeredness. In addition, assessment was also seen as problematic, as most the teachers were influenced by the standardized O-Net tests conducted in Thailand (Darasawang & Watson-Todd, 2012), which did not necessarily reflect what the teachers were teaching, and were considered too difficult for their rural students.

Culturally, there was an acknowledged lack of confidence expressed by all teachers which focused on accents and pronunciation of English (Phothongsunan & Suwanarak, 2008). There was a belief by the majority of teachers, that they needed to sound like native-speakers and because they could not achieve this unrealistic status, it dented their belief in themselves and could give rise to the potential to harm ego (Komin, 1991) and lose face (Persons, 2008). Coupled with the lack of opportunities for both students and teachers to use English outside the classroom to aid acquisition (Krashen, 1982), teachers felt that they were not equipped to perform their duties in the way they should, which made them feel very uncertain for a strong Uncertainty Avoidance society and in turn, could lead to the presence of high Power Distance (Hofstede, 1986) in the classroom to reinforce the social hierarchy.

4.2 How do Teachers Implement Learner-centeredness?

The Thai teachers of English were observed for one class using Observation Grids based on Blumberg (2009). What follows are the key aspects emerging from the analysis of the observations, highlighting how teachers have adapted their methodology. A summary and individual teacher Observation Grids showing emergent themes are contained at Appendix R.

The first five observations analysed in this section illustrated learner-centered activities, and are analysed in the following paragraphs. There were demonstrations of opportunities for assessment during the learning process, varied use of content to engage the students (Blumberg, 2009), as well as scaffolding (Senior, 2011), and a ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978). The Balance of Power (Blumberg, 2009) remained with the teachers due to high Power Distance and strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1986).

Two teachers with MA TESOL qualifications produced similar activities with similar results for when their students entered the classroom. The observed routine formative assessment and corrective feedback through teacher/student interaction (Long, 1996), in line with learner-centered teaching (Blumberg, 2009) in a different cultural setting gave the researcher data that when analysed, highlighted many aspects of teacher/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986) relevant for this investigation. T1 was sat on a chair by the entrance to the classroom assessing students on previous work to allow them to enter the classroom, whereas T8 was stood up. The students had to answer a question based on previous classwork before they could enter. It was interesting to see how the students behaved as culturally, students would be required to lower their head, so that the teachers head remained higher than theirs, to show deference to the teacher (Komin, 1991); however, this was not the case.

This placed more responsibility for learning on the student (Blumberg, 2009), as they knew that this was an activity expected every lesson before entering the classroom. That being said, there was a lot of support from the teacher, due to the teacher/student interaction (Long, 1996) for each student taking place, allowing for scaffolding (Senior, 2011) for the students that required it. When students were not able to answer correctly, the teacher was able to assist them to find the correct answer, allowing for less uncertainty (Hofstede, 1980), which added to the engagement of the students involved in the activity.

Both these teachers used technology in the classroom, in conjunction with pair-work and groupwork, demonstrating many higher level transitions to learner-centered teaching (Blumberg, 2009). T1 had his twenty-four Grade 6 students sitting in a U-shaped formation, sitting inside and outside the desks. A projector was used to provide activities that were related to sections of the course book. Explanations of what the students were expected to do were given by the teacher in English and Thai, allowing for comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985). The students completed the activities as individuals, in pairs and in groups, allowing for corrective feedback to take place through interaction (Long, 1996). The pair-work was particularly effective, as students had to move from one person to the next, using the U-shaped classroom layout to good effect. T1 oversaw the activities and gave support and scaffolding (Senior, 2011) where necessary.

T8 taught a young Grade One class of nineteen, with the students sat facing each other, around desks that had been pushed together. A projector was used to play music videos, there was a course book and the teacher had the students use her computer at the front of the class. The students watched a video about colours and then they sang along to a numbers song which asked them how many. The teacher used quickfire questions around the class to confirm that students had understood the videos, and as a form of assessment within the learning process (Blumberg, 2009). She then had the students line up at the front

of the class, and they individually played a game on her laptop where they had to answer with a number. This was projected onto the screen so everyone could see what was happening. Although this was an individual activity, there was a lot of student/student interaction (Long, 1996) taking place, as well as support and scaffolding (Senior, 2011) by the teacher. After this activity, the students went back to their desks and completed work in their books concerning numbers. The final activity had students ask their classmates how many books, pencils, or pens they had behind their back, to confirm and recycle the activities that had just taken place.

Both teachers used a variety of content to engage the students, and used multiple methods which were appropriate for the learning goals (Blumberg, 2009). In addition, a learning environment was created where students could work together and learn from their more experienced peers through the interaction that took place during the activities, creating a ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978), which confirmed what they had both stated in her interviews in the previous section of this chapter that they considered themselves learner-centered teachers.

The students of both classes were not responsible for their learning because the classes were so young, keeping the Power Distance (Hofstede, 1986) high, but both teachers still managed to offer support and scaffolding (Senior, 2011). T1 and T8 were also able to formatively assess the students during the learning process and the students were able to assess themselves in spoken pair-work (Blumberg, 2009), and in the case of the T8 students, individual work on the computer, providing the opportunity to give corrective feedback to each other (Long, 1996).

T3 also had a very young class (Grade One) of twenty-four students and produced a lesson that had many higher level transitions and aspects of learner-centeredness, in line with her perceptions that she is a learner-centered teacher stated in her interview in the previous

section of this chapter. The students were sat around desks that had been pushed together and were learning about their family, making a book by cutting and pasting pictures and then speaking to the class. They were engaged with the content, working in pairs, groups and individually, fulfilling Blumberg's (2009) definitions of learner-centered teaching, which produced a harmonious (Komin, 1991) learning environment, through the ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978) for the students as they interacted with each other (Long, 1996). There was plenty of opportunity for the teacher to formatively assess the students during the lesson (Blumberg, 2009); however, the students were possibly too young, cognitively (Hofstede, 1986), for all of them to be able to assess themselves. The Balance of Power (Blumberg, 2009) remained with the teacher, due to the young age of the students; however, she demonstrated that she was very attentive to students' needs throughout the observation, reducing the Power Distance (Hofstede, 1986) when scaffolding (Senior, 2011) the students in their student/student and teacher/student interactions (Long, 1996).

The observation for T9 was held in a big hall with multimedia, which is the normal location for her English classes. Her class is Grade Four, with fourteen students, and there were no tables and chairs, so the students were seated on the floor. Facilities included an LCD television, sound system, laptop and a small portable whiteboard. Students started with prayers and meditation, before the teacher asked them in Thai, what they did when they got up in the morning. T9 played a music video about the subject and the students sat quietly on the floor. The video was played a second time and this time the students stood up and sang along clapping their hands. The teacher walked around the students asking questions once the video had finished to illicit answers about their personal daily routine. Questions were asked in English and Thai.

The video was played a third time and stopped at various places so that students could answer the questions. The students then broke off in pairs to ask and answer similar

questions, mimicking what they had seen on the video. Once they had practiced, they were asked to present at the front of the class. T9 listened attentively and gave scaffolding (Senior, 2011) and assistance to those who required it.

This lesson had many higher level transitions to learner-centered teaching, which included role-plays at the front of the class after the initial teacher-centered instructions concerning daily routines. Comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) for the students was achieved by including varied use of content and good engagement of the students (Blumberg, 2009). This was a warm and harmonious environment (Komin, 1991), where the teaching methods were appropriate (Blumberg, 2009) and the teacher and students interacted well with each other, allowing for corrective feedback to take place (Long, 1996) during the interactions (Hofstede, 1986). In contrast to this higher level transition to learner-centered teaching (Blumberg, 2009), T9 also demonstrated high Power Distance and strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1980) as she retained the Responsibility for Learning taking place as well as the Balance of Power, but was able to formatively assess the students during the learning process, with students being able to assess themselves to a certain degree (Blumberg, 2009). There was some question as to the relevance of some of the video content contained in the lesson regarding the curriculum and Thai culture. The video concerned daily routines; however, this routine was from a western perspective and led to some difficulty for students when trying to adapt to the new situations they were presented with, which created an affective filter (Krashen, 1982) that hindered learning at times. This apparent difficulty in adaptation suggests that there could be a difference in cognitive ability for the students when adjusting to content that is culturally challenging in a learner-centered way (Hofstede, 1986).

T10 had a very active class of eighteen students, which demonstrated many higher level transitions to learner-centered teaching (Blumberg, 2009). This class of Grade Four

students were sat in a traditional classroom setting with access to an LCD television screen. The lesson started with a video about the daily routine of getting up in the morning. The students and the teacher were stood up and they sang and danced the gestures, for example, brushing your teeth and combing your hair, allowing the possibility of comprehensible input to take place (Krashen, 1985). Once the video had finished the teacher confirmed by going around the classroom asking questions to individual students about what time they completed those activities, helping and scaffolding those students who required assistance (Senior, 2011). One student appeared to have particular difficulty with answering the questions and he was helped by his friends and the teacher to answer the questions, demonstrating how the ZPD (Vygotsky, 1986) can be used to good effect in order to allow students with more knowledge to assist and support another student who needs assistance to complete the task at hand.

The teacher conducted further activities about telling the time and the difference between watches and clocks. This led to the use of pronouns, asking what did individual students do at a specific time and an interesting situation where the pronoun 'he' caused laughter among the students as it resembles a rude word in Thai. This was quickly glossed over by the teacher.

The teacher gave handouts to the students to complete, to recycle what had just been taught in class, and this was conducted in pairs and in groups, allowing for peer interaction (Long, 1996) to take place. Students exchanged their papers for peer assessment (Blumberg, 2009) and the teacher asked around the class to obtain the answers once the papers had been assessed, confirming in Thai as well as English, using the LCD television to reveal the answers. Once completed, T10 played the video again and she filmed her students on her telephone singing and dancing to the daily routine.

There was varied use of content which engaged the students at all times and created a good learning environment, aligning content in a way that was appropriate for student learning goals (Blumberg, 2009). The teacher retained the responsibility for learning; however, students were able to conduct peer assessment as well as the teacher assessing them during the learning process (Blumberg, 2009). The Balance of Power (Blumberg, 2009) remained with the teacher; however, there were many good learner-centered aspects of the lesson involving groupwork and pair-work, allowing close student/student and teacher/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986).

The following observation started out as very teacher-centered and then changed into a lesson with many learner-centered activities. The observation for T6 and his eighteen Grade Six students was particularly interesting as it was based on traditional grammar-translation. The afternoon lesson started with some small-talk about lunch. In the Thai context this is something more than small-talk as food is very culturally significant (Redmond, 1998), resulting in Thai people spending a considerable amount of time talking about the subject. Rather than just small talk, this actively engages students (Blumberg, 2009).

This lesson was based around personal pronouns and involved students sat behind desks laid out in rows in front of a blackboard. T6 elicited the pronouns whilst speaking Thai to his students. He then wrote Thai sentences on the board and asked questions to the whole class to translate the sentence into English. What he was showing was a difference in syntax between Thai and English, so that the students were able to see the different word order producing comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985). Although this teacher taught from a position of authority, it was evident that the students liked their teacher and he laughed and joked with them reducing the Power Distance and maintaining strong Uncertainty

Avoidance (Hofstede, 1986), whilst still maintaining authority (Komin, 1991), and face (Persons, 2008) within the Thai cultural context.

For example:

มันเป็นแอปเปิ้ลของเธอ

It is her apple.

มันเป็น

แอปเปิ้ล

ของ

เธอ

It is

apple

of

her

The first twenty minutes of the lesson appeared very teacher-centered. He then sat down at the back of the classroom at a desk and the students worked on their own, individually, in pairs, and in groups. Using criteria laid down in Appendix A, set out by Blumberg (2009), the lesson was very teacher-centered, except for when the students worked together to solve the problems set by the teacher in pairs and groups, which gave the students many opportunities to give each other feedback through interaction (Long, 1996) and producing comprehensible output (Swain, 1995). This learner-centered activity was very productive and required the teacher to act as a true facilitator when called upon. The students were able to work in pairs and groups allowing them to interact in a ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978), where the more knowledgeable students were able to assist those who required help.

T6 appeared very relaxed and in his element; however, just before being interviewed for this study, he stated that he felt nervous when we were in his classroom because he had not prepared anything special for us to see.

“Ah I’m so very nervous.”

“I think maybe not the best lesson, because I have not prepare anything.”

(T6)

There was the potential for this teacher to lose face (Persons, 2008) and thus effect ego (Komin, 1991); however, he had the confidence in his ability to progress and teach as he would normally do. There are many factors that affect the way that teachers view the teaching of grammar. This includes the way they learned grammar themselves as a student as well as their own personal beliefs (Keck & Kim, 2014).

The following four observations were of teachers who gave lessons that were principally teacher-centered in nature, resulting in a more traditional learning environment (Vaiyavutjamai & Clements, 2006), where the Balance of Power remained firmly with the teacher (Blumberg, 2009).

The observed lesson from T2 was predominantly teacher-centered featuring the teaching of adjectives as a lecture from the front of the class, in a traditional classroom setting (Vaiyavutjamai & Clements, 2006), whilst holding a long ruler, moving around to ask students questions and to complete choral drills. This reflected what she had stated during her interview as part of this study and recorded in the previous section of this chapter, that she was an IT major, without the necessary English language or teaching skills. It is important to remember that in Thai primary schools, sixty-five percent of teachers who teach English did not major in that subject (Noopong, 2002).

This was a lesson on adjectives, delivered to her twenty-one Grade Five students, with a description of how adjectives are used written on the blackboard in Thai with the adjectives in English. T2 used choral drills to illicit pronunciation from the students, as well as spelling and the meaning in Thai before handing out some worksheets. Whilst the

students completed the worksheet, T2 walked among the students, looking at individual work and offering feedback. Some students were working in pairs, others were working individually. Once the students have finished, they handed their work to the teacher and then T2 went through the worksheet with the students, asking individual students for the answers.

When analysing the Function of Content (Blumberg, 2009), T2's observation demonstrated that when the students were listening and given handouts, they did not seem engaged with the activities that were taking place, suggesting a lack of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985). The teaching that took place had very little English spoken by the teacher and students, and was very rote/memorisation, with little chance for teacher/student and student/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986), corrective feedback (Long, 1996), or comprehensible output (Swain, 1995). The Balance of Power and Responsibility for Learning remained with the teacher, resulting in a lesson that was very teacher-centered (Blumberg, 2009).

From T2's demeanour during the observation and her first interview, she did not appear to be happy. Her confidence seemed low, and the observation and interview by a researcher and interpreter may have been face threatening (Persons, 2008) and a challenge to her ego (Komin, 1991). However, I spent a considerable amount of time with her after the first interview to give her some reassurance and she appeared much happier when I visited the second time as we had built up a relationship where she felt that the interview was conducted under a more supportive and harmonious environment (Komin, 1990).

As mentioned earlier in this section, T2 carried a ruler and used it to point to the blackboard. This is not unusual in Thailand; however, there was an instant when she was talking to a student and she turned. As she turned, the student flinched as if to brace

themselves for being hit. T2 had no intention of hitting the student; however, although corporal punishment is banned in Thailand (Global Initiative to End All Corporal Punishment of Children, 2016), it is still practiced in some schools. Deveney (2005) explains that although Thai teachers have high status and considerable face at school, students also fear being hit with sticks and losing face.

By no stretch of the imagination is corporal punishment learner-centered in nature; however, what is of interest to this study is how corporal punishment may be viewed by children. It depends on the cultural context in which it is contained. If it is normal for corporal punishment to take place in a given culture, then the damage caused psychologically is lessened to a certain degree (Lansford, 2010), as this is something that is expected or normal. Paradoxically, Hofstede (1986) explains that in a country classed with a Feminine dimension, such as Thailand, corporal punishment would normally be forbidden. It is something that would be expected more in a Masculine dimension.

The next two teachers had classes that were combined levels. The observation for T4 who had eight students in a combined class of Grades Three and Four, had a lesson that used a book, handouts, the whiteboard and an LCD television about body parts. The students seemed very passive at first, especially at the beginning of the class, requiring the teacher to be very animated to engage them. This was most likely because they were being observed by two strangers. The lesson started with a video about parts of the body, allowing the students to dance and sing along touching their body parts, allowing for comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) to take place. Once the video finished, T4 went over the content with the class again before referring the students to the handout they already had. The students read out the instructions in Thai as a class, with the teacher adding information at various times. The reading aloud was very monotone and it reminded the researcher of Buddhist chants in a temple, so it is not clear whether this was

comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) or not. During this time, there was also reference to prepositions of place with regard to the location of the body parts.

The body parts were then written on the whiteboard, with students calling out the parts and spelling in English as well as giving a Thai translation. Once completed, the students reverted to their handout and course book and worked in pairs and small groups. This gave the students opportunity to interact with their partner and allowed for corrective feedback (Long, 1996). In addition, T4 went around the students interacting and offering feedback where necessary. Once completed, pairs would go to the front of the class to ask and answer questions from each other concerning parts of the body, with the teacher assisting and scaffolding (Senior, 2011) the students that required help. This activity was a good use of comprehensible output (Swain, 1995), in that students would be corrected by their partner, their teacher or the rest of the class.

This lesson produced some higher level transitions to learner-centered teaching (content interactions between students and the teacher as well as some teaching appropriate for student learning goals); however, the overall lesson was very teacher-centered (Blumberg, 2009).

This lesson from T7 had nine students in a class that combined two grades (Grades Five and Six), and was on the subject of family members. The teacher used flashcards, course books, a blackboard and an LCD television. The lesson started with the teacher using the flashcards to illicit vocabulary in English and Thai, as well as to make sure students understood the spelling. This comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) was added to by T7 writing on the blackboard the composition of a Thai family. Students would then come out to the front of the class and explain their family makeup, with the teachers scaffolding (Senior, 2011) the students' comprehensible output (Swain, 1995) where necessary.

The students then watched two videos concerning family members, which involved them singing, dancing and making gestures concerning the family members. The lesson then became disjointed as there were problems with the internet connection, so this part finished prematurely with the students finishing the lesson by explaining to the rest of the class about their family members and being asked questions by their peers, facilitated by the teacher.

This lesson demonstrated high Power Distance and strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1986). There was some variety of content; however, the activities were very teacher-centered, and did not produce much opportunity for peer or self-assessment (Blumberg, 2009). The Balance of Power remained with the teacher, with little opportunity for students to take Responsibility for Learning (Blumberg, 2009) or be involved in a ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978), where more experienced students could assist those with less knowledge of the subject.

The lesson by T7 produced students who were very engaged; however, the lesson was not very learner-centered, due to an absence of student/student interaction and corrective feedback (Long, 1996), with many categories being in the lower transition level of learner-centered teaching (Blumberg, 2009).

The lesson observed for T5 was revision from the previous class and involved a game of bingo as recycling of the past tense for the fourteen students from her Grade Eight class. Students were sat in their groups of three girls and eleven boys around two sets of tables. There was an LCD television and the use of course books and work books. The students were working from their course books and when they had finished the exercise, they had to draw a bingo card in their work books. T5 read out the past tense verbs, and the students

crossed off the ones that they heard. The teacher walked around the room giving advice in Thai, as there seemed some problems with the past participle, until there was a winner. There did not seem to be much opportunity for student/student interaction and feedback (Long, 1996) during this activity.

The next activity had the teacher revise some previous work from their course books in English and Thai, and once the exercises were completed the answers were displayed on the LCD television for students to check their answers. There was not an opportunity for the students to give the answers, and for the teacher to make use of assessment within the learning process (Blumberg, 2009).

This lesson was very teacher-centered, as there was not much varied use of content (Blumberg, 2009). The students were not engaged for the majority of the time (Blumberg, 2009) and the learning environment resembled a traditional Thai classroom (Vaiyavutjamai & Clements, 2006) with a lack of student/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986) and a high Power Distance between the teacher and the students (Hofstede, 1980). The Balance of Power remained with the teacher and there was little chance for peer and self-assessment or taking Responsibility for Learning (Blumberg, 2009). Overall, there was little motivation for students' intrinsic drive to learn (Blumberg, 2009).

In summary, the majority of teachers demonstrated some aspects of higher level transitions to learner-centered teaching, with many lower level transitions to learner-centeredness (Blumberg, 2009). Most teachers used varied uses of content and were able to engage the students for some of the time (Blumberg, 2009). In addition, some were able to conduct assessments during the learning process and give students the chance to self-assess themselves (Blumberg, 2009).

It was interesting to note there were two teachers with combined classes demonstrating a more teacher-centered observation, suggesting that teachers who are in this situation may have to maintain more control over the class due to being under pressure to fulfil the curriculum requirements, and also considering the other non-curricula activities that are also required by all teachers. Whilst this may produce comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) in some cases, there was little opportunity for student/student and teacher/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986), corrective feedback (Long, 1996), or comprehensible output (Swain, 1995) in a ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978).

In addition, one teacher (T2) demonstrated a very teacher-centered lesson, which is likely down to the fact that she did not major in English. Moreover, two teachers had Grade One students and their classes were very different to each other; however, they both had to retain Responsibility for Learning and the Balance of Power (Blumberg, 2009), probably due to the young age of their students.

It is worth noting that the teachers with Master's degrees demonstrated lessons that had higher level transitioning (Blumberg, 2009) towards learner-centered teaching. This may be because of the methodology training on their MA courses, even though there seems a preference for PPP pedagogy which is not renowned for being particularly learner-centered, but more for accuracy and correctness (Criado, 2013).

One teacher demonstrated a more learner-centered grammar-translation lesson, illustrating how a teacher-centered activity can be used in a learner-centered way, by using group and pair-work, creating an environment to accommodate different learning styles and using methods appropriate for learning goals (Blumberg, 2009).

Culturally, the teachers that displayed more teacher-centered dimensions (Blumberg, 2009) tended to display strong Uncertainty Avoidance by maintaining high Power Distance in their classrooms, reducing the amount of learner-centered student/student and teacher/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986) and the opportunities for corrective feedback (Long, 1996) to take place, which in turn limited the amount of comprehensible output (Swain, 1995) produced.

4.3 What are Students' Perceptions of their Learning Preferences?

Data was collected from the group student interviews to identify psychological themes (Ratner, 2002) that emerged. These meaning units produced emergent themes explaining how students liked to learn English, they liked their textbooks, and they liked English games, songs and videos, as these preferences can be considered by teachers when planning their learner-centered classes (Blumberg, 2009).

When asked whether they liked learning English, the clear majority of students stated that they did. Selected transcriptions in English and Thai are at Appendix S. Although most the students liked learning English, there were some that were not so sure. The T4 students had difficulty in understanding the question at first; however, with help they were able to answer that they did. The students of T5 were less enthusiastic. When asked whether they liked English only three of the students answered and they answered individually.

“It’s normal.” (S2T5)

“Normal.” (S2T5)

“I like it sometimes.” (S5T5)

“Yes.” (S4T5)

The students from all groups stated, together, that they liked their textbooks, displaying Collectivist traits (Hofstede, 1980) in their answers. What follows are particular aspects of the text book that students stated that they liked. Selected transcriptions in English and Thai are at Appendix T.

“Vocabulary, pictures, colours are interesting.” (S3T1)

“Get to see get to know.” (S3T2)

“The content.” (S5T4)

“It has interesting vocabulary.” (S2T4)

“There’re questions and answers, vocabularies in channels, questions, vocabularies in the sentence and separate them out to make sentences.”

[multiple choice] (S2T5)

“Knowing how to create a question sentence.” (S2T6)

“It helps with studying.” (S2T8)

“It gives knowledge.” (S2T9)

“Use it in our daily life and helps us to read.” (S1T10)

By following a textbook, students and teachers maintain strong Uncertainty Avoidance because of the structured learning environment. It has become evident that students have highlighted vocabulary as the main reason why they like their textbook, which corresponds with the vocabulary focus of many of the teachers that emerged from the data analysed in earlier sections of this chapter. By concentrating on vocabulary, the teachers are giving the students the building blocks of a sound foundation of the English language. Once the students have learned the vocabulary, the teachers can scaffold the students to use it in simple sentences, thus creating comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985). In addition, Krashen (1985, p. 2) explains that if enough input is understood, the required amount of

grammar is provided automatically as the student moves to the next level. From a learner-centered perspective, the students like learning vocabulary, so they are engaged with the content, and the content is used to facilitate future learning, a feature of learner-centeredness (Blumberg, 2009).

The T3 students all replied in harmony that they liked everything in their textbook. One student pointed out that they had to finish the book so that they can start the next book the following year.

“Have to finish studying the book.” (S3T3)

“Next year I will be in Prathom Two.” [Grade Two] (S3T3)

This meaning unit illustrates the possibility that some students may see the relevance of the textbook to student progression through the years, rather than by merit illustrating how task achievement can be seen as secondary to social values in Thai culture (Komin, 1990) and also conforms to Thailand’s no-fail policy (Halligan, 2011).

Six groups of students answered in unison that they liked playing games in their English classes. Selected transcriptions in English and Thai are at Appendix U. Answering a question at the same time is something that was witnessed in the majority of teacher observations, allowing students to maintain their smooth interpersonal skills (Komin, 1991), their strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1980) and not lose face (*chuesiang*) (Persons, 2008). The T3 students stated all at the same time that they did not play games in class, and the T7, T8 and T9 students were more hesitant in their answers.

The students stated that they played many different games, for example:

“Pictures, vocabulary.” (S2S3T1)

“There would be vocabulary and let us choose correctly.” (S4T1)

“It is a game.” (SallT4)

“Dictation in English.” (S3T2)

“And hints.” (S2T2)

“Matching.” (S2S4T4)

“Present, answering questions.” (S2T4)

“Bingo.” (S3S4S5T5)

“Games that we can play and get knowledge from it.” (S1T10)

“Guessing English vocabularies.” (S1T10)

“Dancing Exercise.” (S1T10)

“Singing.” (S2T10)

Once again, there was a heavy focus on vocabulary, reflecting the importance the teachers have placed on that aspect of language learning. The T6 students do not seem to play many games at all. Although all students answered that they did, in unison, it would seem that they work mostly in pairs to answer questions.

“Sort of...” (S1T6)

“Answering questions.” (S4T6)

“Only be in pairs and answering questions that’s all.” (S1T6)

The use of pair-work for this activity indicates that there is the opportunity for the teacher to facilitate the use of student/student interaction during the games, which would allow for corrective feedback (Long, 1996) between them. This learning environment could represent a ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978), where the weaker student can be supported and

scaffolded by a more competent student to achieve the knowledge that they were not able to achieve independently (Mitchell, et al., 2013).

Most students stated that they liked to sing songs, answering together demonstrating their Collectivist behaviour and strong Uncertainty Avoidance when interacting (Hofstede, 1986), as well as strong interdependence orientation (Komin, 1991). During analysis, the productive use of songs was discussed, in order to find out whether SLA was taking place and the amount of engagement of the students. Selected transcriptions in English and Thai are contained at Appendix V.

The T1 students had difficulty remembering the songs that they sang in their English classes, most probably because they are so young. The students were asked if they sang songs in class.

“Yes. We do.” (SallT1)

When asked to name a song, they answered with the name of a Thai song. It was remembered by the class because it was the first song that they had learned in class.

“It’s the first song we get to learn in the class and we get to sing it often.”

(S1T1)

This song seems to be a song that is sung quite frequently by the class; however, the students did not seem very forthcoming about the subject, reflecting that they did not see singing songs as a normal part of their classroom activity. The T3 students all stated that they sang songs in class.

“Yes.” (S1,S2,S4,S5T3)

“Yes.” (S3T3)

When asked what song the students liked to sing, they stated it was the Hello song”.

“Hello song.” (S4,S5T3)

The students were asked if they would sing the song and they did.

“Hello, hello, hello how are you. I’m fine, I’m fine, I hope that you are too.”

(SallT3)

The students seemed very enthusiastic about singing songs together, reflecting the fun nature of Thai students (Klausner, 2000) and their smooth interpersonal and interdependence orientations (Komin, 1991). The T7 students answered in unison that they sang songs in their English classes and gave a demonstration in English of the “Hello song” and followed it with the same song in Japanese, singing and dancing together.

“Yes.” (SallT7)

“Hello.” (S5T7)

“Yes.” (S5T7)

“Hello, hello, how are you? How are you? How are you?

Hello, hello, how are you? I’m fine thank you.” (SallT7) (T7)

[Singing together]

[Singing in Japanese]

[Singing and dancing together]

[Singing and dancing in Japanese]

The “Hello song” seems to be very popular in this district; however, as it is only one song with limited opportunities to enlarge the vocabulary, there seems not much opportunity for expansion. The T7 students were very similar to the T3 students in that they demonstrated a very harmonious environment, illustrating their smooth interpersonal and interdependence orientations (Komin, 1991).

The T5 students also agreed all together that they sang songs in their English language classes; however, T5 uses the songs for gap-fill activities which the students find a little difficult to do, but they like it.

“I can’t sing. We sing along with the beat and the teacher will let us write it down from the choices. There are lyrics and gaps and we have to write it down.” (S2T5)

“Can do it, I like it.” (S1S2T5)

The above dialogue demonstrates how songs can be used constructively to enhance literacy and language skills (Paquette & Rieg, 2008), rather than just to enhance the learning environment. The use of gap-fill activities can generate student/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986) if used correctly, allowing for corrective feedback (Long, 1996) between students, and the use of comprehensible output (Swain, 1995) when students are given the opportunity to produce answers to questions in class.

The T8 students are very young and were led by their teacher in answering the question about which songs that they sing in class.

“Let it go.” (S2T8)

“Let it go.”

“A foreign song, what song did you sing? How do you sing the Yes
And No song?” (T8)

[Singing Yes And No Song]

The students were directed to the “Yes and no song” by T8 and it was sung enthusiastically by the students as demonstrated in previous examples in this section. It is worth remembering that the observation of T8 detailed in the previous section of this chapter, had the students singing the “Chicken Dance”, which doesn’t have any lyrics and involves the students making actions similar to a chicken, dancing to the music and clapping their hands; however, T8 and her students counted 1, 2, 3, 4 in time with the music, so the students spoke English to count numbers whilst they danced to the music. This is a constructive use of songs in the classroom which could lead to comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985).

The T4 students answered yes as one when asked whether they sang songs in their English language classroom; however, under further questioning, they only talked about the “Chicken Dance”.

“Yes.” (SallT4)

“English songs.” (S5T4)

“Chicken Dance.” (SallT4)

“This only has sound.” (T4)

“Only has music.” (SallT4)

“Can’t remember the name of the song.” (T4)

T4 was involved in answering questions as well as the students and she explained that the students could not remember the name of any other song that they sang in class. The Chicken Dance seems to be very popular. However, not all the students sang songs. The T6 students say that they sing songs in class; however, only three students indicated this and were not able to give further information.

“Yes.” (S1,S2,S3T6)

“Can’t remember that much.” (S1,S3T6)

They then indicated that they couldn’t remember the song. It did not seem that the class sang many songs as part of their lessons. Two students of T2 stated they sang songs; however, when asked what songs they sang, all the students responded that they did not sing songs in class.

“Yes.”

Researcher: “What songs? What songs are these?” (Researcher)

“No.” (SallT2)

“Do you like singing songs?” (Interpreter)

“Yes.” (SallT2)

Even though the students do not seem to sing songs in class, they do like to sing songs. During the following student group interview, it was interesting to listen to how the students answered the question, particularly the T10 students.

“Wow!” (S3T10)

[Students talking among themselves]

“Hello song.” (S1T10)

“Hello song.” (S2T10)

“Hello song.” (S3T10)

“Hello song.” (S4T10)

“Hello song.” (S5T10)

[Students sing the Hello Song.]

This above dialogue demonstrates not only the answer to the question that had been posed, but also how students behaved when answering questions. When students answer in unison, it tends to follow the pattern where one student starts and then a split second later, the others join, and they end up stating their dialogue together. This Collectivist behaviour is common in the classroom and was demonstrated many times during the classroom observations and detailed throughout this chapter, as it demonstrates strong Uncertainty Avoidance during classroom interaction (Hofstede, 1986) and confirms the harmonious environment based on the interdependence orientation (Komin, 1991).

In addition, the activity of singing songs in the classroom involves students who are engaged with the teacher and the content (Blumberg, 2009), judging by their willingness to sing during the interviews, even though the researcher is not convinced that the students actually understood the words of the song, or more importantly, whether the students would remember how to use the language without music. Content is often learned by rote memorization in Thailand (Foley, 2005), so the interaction pattern between teacher/student and student/student (Hofstede, 1986) for singing songs remains constant, whether teacher-centered or learner-centered. On reflection, whilst recent research has shown the benefit of singing in the facilitation of foreign language learning (Ludke, et al., 2014), I am left wondering whether the students would be able to answer properly in a different setting the question, “How are you?” an integral part of the song.

There are reasons for these doubts as to the usefulness of this type of activity. Researchers working as teacher trainers for the Office of Basic Education were under the impression that the novice and experienced teachers they observed as part of their research used games and songs as unrelated activities and did not understand how to use them effectively in relation to teaching goals and classroom objectives (Prapinwong, et al., 2014), which adds to my uncertainty. If comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) is not taking place, then there is a missed learning opportunity and limited chances of corrective feedback (Long, 1996) and comprehensible output (Swain, 1995), even though there is the appearance of learner-centeredness.

Most students stated that they liked to watch videos in their English classes. Vocabulary featured highly again, as well as fun videos and videos with academic content.

Transcriptions in English and Thai are contained at Appendix W. The T1, T4, T7, T8 and T10 students answered in unison, displaying Collectivist traits (Hofstede, 1980), that they liked watching videos in their English classes, giving examples of what they watch.

“The teacher let us do the O-net test I think. To help with the test.” (S1T1)

“Hero.” (S4S5T1)

“Songs.” (SallT4)

“Counting numbers too.”(S5T4)

“Stories.” (S2T7)

“Elsa.” (S1T8)

“Cartoons.” (S3T9)

“English dancing songs.” (S1T10)

“Chicken dance.” (S4T10)

Dancing songs and the “Chicken Dance” featured again, as well as counting numbers. The O-Net test is the standardised tests for Years Six, Nine and Twelve. Most of the above examples are fun activities and reflect the idea of the classroom being a harmonious environment (Komin, 1991). This is opposite to the T2 students, who do not watch videos in class and answered as such altogether. They would like to watch videos that teach them English.

“Teaching.” (S2S5T2)

“And let us repeat after.” (S5T2)

This is a more academic choice which reflects the more teacher-centered teaching observed as part of this research detailed in an earlier section of this chapter. The same could be said for the T6 students, who answered in unison that they do not watch videos in their English language classroom, but they would like to.

“I would like to watch about foreign education learning.” (S1T6)

“And the history of England.” (S3T6)

“And I would like to watch greetings in English.” (S2T6)

“English vocabulary.” (S5T6)

“English songs.” (S4T6)

These examples are predominantly academic rather than fun videos. Another example is that of the T5 students, a teacher with a more teacher-centered perspective, who watch videos in their English classes sometimes, mainly about vocabulary and grammar.

“Sometimes.” (S2S5T5)

“About vocabulary.” (S3T5)

“Vocabulary for example, Present Simple Tense, Plurals something like this.” (S2T5)

Once again, vocabulary has been highlighted as a main focus and illustrates the importance put on it by the teachers and the academic nature of the preferred videos for self-professed teacher-centered teachers.

The T9 students do not watch many videos in class; however, they expressed a desire to see different types. There were some other class members present during the group interview that voiced their opinions as well as the five students selected by the teacher.

“No.” (S1S2T9)

“Only get to watch just vocabulary.” (S3T9)

“Not often.” (S1T9)

“About writing.” (S2T9)

“Watching movies.” (S0T9)

“About singing songs.” (S3T9)

“Cartoons.” (S3T9)

Once more, vocabulary confirms the focus of the teachers when using videos in the classroom.

In summary, the majority of students stated that they liked to learn English; however, some students were less animated. This could be the result of teachers being teacher-centered both in their observed class and by their own admission during interviews. In addition, students overwhelmingly liked their textbooks too, stating that vocabulary was what they

liked most, which corresponds to the focus of English language teaching revealed by many of the teachers taking part in this study.

Students liked playing games in their English classes, with only one group stating that they did not. In addition, most students liked singing songs. Songs can be used to good effect to improve literacy (Paquette & Rieg, 2008) and to facilitate English language learning (Ludke, et al., 2014), as demonstrated by T8; however, songs tend not to be used in coordination with learning goals and objectives (Prapinwong, et al., 2014) in Thailand. Songs can be used to introduce, confirm and practice vocabulary in a learner-centered way, as part of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985), student/student and teacher/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986), corrective feedback during interaction (Long, 1996) and comprehensible output (Swain, 1995). With many teachers not having sufficient training to teach English (Draper, 2012b), questions need to be asked as to the effectiveness of songs being used in Thai classrooms.

Teachers who were observed as being more learner-centered, tended to show more fun orientated videos in the classroom, whereas those teachers who displayed a more teacher-centered approach to teaching, were less likely to show videos. Students from the more teacher-centered classes were inclined to want to see school videos to help them learn English rather than more fun topics, like movies and songs. Students explained that they watched vocabulary videos frequently which confirms the vocabulary focus that teachers stated in their interviews in the first section of this chapter.

4.4 How do these Preferences Relate to Learner-centeredness?

This section illustrates how student preferences directly relate to student-centered learning as catering for their preferences can lead to student engagement, student motivation,

student autonomy, student self-assessment and opportunities for students to learn (Blumberg, 2009). The themes that emerged from the meaning units were that most students preferred working in groups rather than working individually, with one group stating the preference for pair-work. In addition, most students stated the desire for their work to be marked by their teachers, with two groups preferring peer evaluation. One of the peer evaluation groups required their teacher to give a final grade on completion. Most of the students stated that they used English outside the classroom; however, on closer inspection, this was found to be not necessarily the case. These emergent themes are analysed in the following paragraphs to illustrate their relationship to learner-centeredness (Blumberg, 2009).

Activities that involve student/teacher/content interaction is an important part of learner-centered teaching (Blumberg, 2009), allowing for corrective feedback (Long, 1996), through teacher/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986). Students from all groups, except one, stated that they preferred working in groups as opposed to individually. The response was once again, everyone speaking together, demonstrating Collectivist traits (Hofstede, 1980). The T6 students stated that they preferred working in pairs because they could exchange their knowledge (learning and ideas) with others (Transcriptions in English and Thai are contained at Appendix X). The remaining nine groups of students preferred working in groups and explained why with the following reasons:

“When I can’t do it, we can look together.” (S3T6)

“Collaborate.” (S4T1)

“It’s fun, we can consult each other.” (S5T2)

“Because we will study well.” (S3T3)

“So we can help each other thinking.” (S1T4)

“Discussing when we don’t understand, friends can tell us and give us an advice.” (S1T5)

“Help each other doing homework.” (S2T8)

“Help each other working.” (S2T9)

“It’s fun when we get to do work.” (S1T9)

“Harmonious.” (S5T10)

It is evident from the previous extracts that the students prefer the opportunity to help each other by working in groups. By working in groups, students are able to interact with each other to give feedback (Long, 1996). In addition, they can assist students who need help and scaffolding (Senior, 2011), in a ZPD environment (Vygotsky, 1978), until they are able to work more independently.

When asked whether they preferred having their work marked by the teacher or their classmates, eight out of the ten groups replied that they preferred their teacher to mark their work, answering in unison. Having the teacher mark their work, shows the teacher as the authority figure, with the Balance of Power remaining with the teacher (Blumberg, 2009). The teacher now has the opportunity to give direct corrective feedback (Long, 1996) to the students by marking the students’ work in a context with high Power Distance teacher/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986), which has strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1980) more teacher-centered and in line with the traditional Thai classroom (Vaiyavutjamai & Clements, 2006). Transcriptions in English and Thai are contained at Appendix Y.

The two groups that preferred a different way were the students of T2 and T5, who were observed as being more teacher-centered in their teaching (discussed in the first section of this chapter). The T2 students stated that they liked the idea of switching their work with their friends because they received real time spoken feedback in Thai, rather than written feedback by the teacher.

“The teacher will let us switch with each other to check.” (S1T2)

“Switch to check and then answer and spelling.” (S5T2)

The T2 students did not like it when the teacher checked their work and answered in unison, no.

“The teacher doesn’t practice spelling with us.” (S5T2)

“If the teacher is checking and explain too, we will understand.” (S3T2)

The students preferred T2 to give answers verbally, so they can listen to the words being spoken and check their own work. This way, the teacher is the authority figure and the students are passive recipients of knowledge (Hofstede, 1986). This would help the students with their pronunciation, but also lets them mark their own work or the work of their friends, allowing for student/student corrective feedback (Long, 1996) and peer and self-assessment (Blumberg, 2009). The potential for comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) appears to be what the students required, but was not forthcoming possibly because T2 may not feel confident enough to pronounce the words and so takes a safer option of marking the work with written feedback, thus protecting her ego (Komin, 1991), her face (Persons, 2008) and her own strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1986). The students prefer marking each other’s work with spoken feedback from the teacher, which maintains strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1986) as well as interdependence orientation

(Komin, 1991) for the students, whilst at the same time, allows for student/student as well as teacher/student corrective feedback to take place (Long, 1996).

The T5 students agreed together that they preferred to peer review their work for self-assessment (Blumberg, 2009), before handing it in to their teacher for final grading, reflecting smooth interpersonal relationships and interdependence orientations (Komin, 1991) in their learner-centered preferences, the same as the previous students.

“We check with our friends.” (S1T5)

“We change to check with our friends.” (S2T5)

The students were asked if they liked it when their teacher graded their work, and their answers reflected a positive answer, but some students wanted it in conjunction with peer assessment.

“Yes. They can do it.” (S1S2S3T5)

“But mostly with change to check with our friends.” (S1T5)

“Change with friends and check it and then grade it and we hand it in for the teacher to check whether we pass or not.” (S2T5)

After the students have assessed each other’s work (Blumberg, 2009), the teacher then gives the grade which is the stamp of approval by the authority figure demonstrating high Power Distance and strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1980). Once again, the opportunity is there for student/student interaction as well as teacher/students interaction (Hofstede, 1986), which paves the way for corrective feedback (Long, 1996) from both peers and teachers in a ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978), where students who require scaffolding can receive help until they are able to work independently.

There were eight groups of students that liked their work marked by their teacher. What follows are their reasons:

“Because it will get Grade Point Four.” (S2T1)

“If it’s our friend, they might be afraid that we will complain their work.”
(S2T1)

“Because we will get points if we do it correctly.” (S3T3)

“In case our friends might make a mistake.” (S4T3)

“Because we get stickers.” (S5T4)

“Because ticking them correct makes us know that we have done it
correctly.” (S3T6)

“A lot of times, my friends cheat.” (S2T6)

“The teacher mark then I don’t get to mark it so just let the teacher mark it.”
(S5T7)

“It’s comfortable.” [It’s easy] (S2T7)

“To get points.” (S4T10)

Some students thought that they would get high marks from their teachers and it was easier to let their teacher do the marking demonstrating strong Uncertainty Avoidance and high Power Distance (Hofstede, 1986). They were also concerned that their friends would mark their work incorrectly or that they could cheat, illustrating the need for strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1986) and interdependence orientation (Komin, 1991).

“In case they check it wrong.” (S4T9)

“Because all of the grade is hers and sometimes with friends, they tick the
mark for them maybe they do wrong.” (S4T9)

Another demonstration of Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1986) is illustrated above as one student explains how work may be marked incorrectly by students, resulting in a lower score for the student concerned. Whilst student interaction through pair-work and groupwork is preferred by students and encourages corrective feedback (Long, 1996), achievement through allocation of grades is extremely important in Thai culture (Komin, 1991).

Students were asked whether they used English outside the classroom, to improve their opportunities to learn and varied use of content (Blumberg, 2009). Most students said that they did; however, when questioned further, it appears that there is only very limited use of English due to the level of student English skills and lack of people to talk to.

Transcriptions in English and Thai are contained at Appendix Z. The T3, T4 and T7 students all replied in unison, demonstrating Collectivist traits (Hofstede, 1980) in their answers, that they did not use English outside the classroom. There does not seem to be a use for English in the students' daily lives, something already discussed as part of the Literature Review chapter, as to whether there is a real need for English in this region (Draper, 2012a). What follows are a few examples of how English is used by the students outside the classroom:

“With brothers and sisters and cousins.” (S2S3T1)

“Speak with friends.” (S2S3T6)

“Speak with friends and parents.” (S1T6)

“It’s fun and a good strange.” (S1T1)

“Greetings.” (SallT1)

“Good morning.” (SallT1)

There is not much opportunity to use English outside of the classroom, which will hinder language acquisition (Krashen, 1982), with less occasions for comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) interaction and corrective feedback (Long, 1996) and comprehensible output (Swain, 1995). One student spoke about speaking to a foreigner that lives in the village; however, this seems a rare occurrence.

“Greetings, say hello, good morning, evening.” (S2T5)

“What’s your name, how do you do, inviting them to play sport.” (S2T5)

Students were asked if they used English with their parents.

“No.” (SallT10)

“Only say Yes, No, OK.” (S3T9)

“Playing games with mom.” (S2T8)

In summary, liking English, liking their textbook, playing games and singing songs were student preferences that are related to learner-centered teaching, if teachers understand how to use them. For example, liking English can be used to motivate students and can be demonstrated in the levels in which students engage with the content (Blumberg, 2009). The textbooks can provide assessment within the learning process, alignment of course components, objectives and teaching methods for consistency, and self-directed learning skills (Blumberg, 2009), if managed effectively by the teacher. Playing games and singing songs engage the students and can motivate students to learn in line with Blumberg’s (2009) learner-centered dimensions. The opportunity for peer and self-assessment exists as well as the creation of a good working environment and ZPD (Vygotsky, 1978) accommodating different learning styles (Blumberg, 2009).

There is very little opportunity for Thai students to use English outside the classroom (Noom-ura, 2013). English is a foreign language in Thailand and is not used as part of daily life, especially in the northeast region, which has its own problems due to lack of development (Fry & Bi, 2013). In addition, it must be remembered that many students do not live with their parents, due to economic migration to Bangkok, social issues, and many students live with their grandparents who have had even less exposure to English, resulting in a lack of opportunities to learn (Blumberg, 2009).

Culturally, most the students would answer at the same time. Answering in unison maintains a harmonious environment (Komin, 1991), allows for strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1986) and restricts the chances of loss of face (Persons, 2008). However, it must be remembered that the children are young and so this may well be a normal reaction to answering interview questions by respondents of such a young age.

Students stated they liked their textbooks, demonstrating a preference for a structured learning environment, synonymous with strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1986). Textbooks can be viewed as cultural artefacts, not only as an educational device, so care must be taken to ensure students can personally identify with the course-book they use in the English language classroom, in all the different contexts that may appear due to the different tasks they will be asked to perform by their teacher (Kullman, 2013). This sense of security is something that can be equally important for teachers who wish to maintain strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1986) themselves.

Students stated a preference for playing games. The idea of *sanuk* (fun) is an important part of Thai culture (Klausner, 2000); however, it is important to realise that playing games in the English language classroom should be part of the lesson, for example, to vary the use

of content, or assessment within the learning process (Blumberg, 2009), rather than to keep the students occupied (Wright, et al., 2006).

Singing songs in class was used by all teachers as a whole class activity during their observations, allowing for strong Uncertainty Avoidance and were Collectivist (Hofstede, 1980) in nature. In addition, interdependence, fun-pleasure and smooth interpersonal relationships were evident (Komin, 1990), although care must be taken as task achievement (the teaching objective) can be stifled by social relationship values (Komin, 1990).

Teachers who were more teacher-centered tended to show less videos in class, and their students wanted to see more English language learning videos than fun videos. This may be because of a lack of sufficient training (Draper, 2012b) to understand how the use of more fun activities can be used in the classroom. By using more academic videos, the lessons would appear more structured and maintain the strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1986) required to keep the harmonious environment (Komin, 1991) in the classroom.

Students wanted to work in groups or in pairs, reflecting strong Uncertainty Avoidance, Collectivist traits and close student/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986), as well as smooth interpersonal relationships, interdependence and fun/pleasure orientations (Komin, 1990), a major part of learner-centeredness (Blumberg, 2009).

Most students wanted their work marked by the teacher, indicating that there was a requirement by the students for strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1986). The majority of the students found the Collectivist nature and student/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986) of peer marking was not preferable and that the authority of the teacher

and high Power Distance and teacher/student interaction (Hofstede, 1986), with corrective feedback (Long, 1996) more appropriate. One group of students preferred their friends mark their work because they liked real time spoken feedback. Another group preferred their friends to mark their work and then have the teacher give the final grading to see if they passed or not.

Chapter 5 Conclusion

This study contributes to the field of English language learning and teaching in three ways. Firstly, by attempting to understand teachers' perceptions of learner-centered teaching. Secondly by looking at how Thai teachers of English implement learner-centered teaching in the classroom, mediated by Thai culture. Finally, students' perceptions of their learning preferences and how these preferences relate to learner-centeredness and Thai culture is also explored, considering the limitations the young age of the students can represent for this investigation. This was achieved by conducting a qualitative study using observations, teacher interviews and group student interviews in a sociocultural framework. These three areas are important when trying to understand how learner-centered teaching has been implemented in the Thai education system, especially when taking into account the relationship between Thai culture and the learning and teaching of English in north-eastern Thailand.

There have been investigations into the learning and teaching of English in Thailand; however, there is limited information concerning the north-east of the country and more specifically, the possible influence of culture. Doctoral theses by Chongchareon (2008), Cheewakaroon (2011), Naruemaon (2013) & Nonthaisong (2015) briefly mention Thai culture when investigating Thailand's education system. This current study sheds light on the learning and teaching of English in the region and offers an insight into how learner-centered teaching, an approach the Thai government adopted in 1999 is mediated by Thai culture.

In this current study, most teachers were able to explain in varying degrees in their interviews what they understood as learner-centered teaching and they were able to demonstrate aspects of learner-centeredness during their observations. By engaging

students through varied use of content and a learner-centered environment, teachers were able to provide some student autonomy, assessment and reach student goals. This was achieved by scaffolding and the use of differentiated learning, illustrating that although teachers were not confident speaking about SLA theory, they understood how to teach in a communicative way.

Moreover, students perceive that learning English is fun, and that they like their textbooks, singing songs, watching videos and playing games as part of their learning, demonstrating how they are engaged. They also stated a preference for working in groups and having their teachers mark their work, demonstrating the position of authority a teacher has in the classroom.

Teachers who majored in subjects other than teaching English may require additional English language skills as well as the skills to teach the subject. In addition, there are combined classes and many extra activities that impact the time that teachers have to teach English. This could be the result of the hierarchical nature of the Thai education system and the Second Way (Hargreaves & Shirley, 2009) that Thailand finds itself in a situation where teachers are conflicted between what the Thai education authorities require and the realities on the ground. Furthermore, there is little opportunity for teachers or students to use English outside the classroom as English is not a second language and does not fit into a teacher's or student's daily routine.

There were many illustrations of lower and higher level transitions to learner-centeredness in the teaching observations, where teachers gave up control over content and the process of learning by considering the learners' needs, capacities and interests, although there was a large amount of teacher-centeredness when analysing the role of the teacher and the

balance of power. This could be because of the young age of the students, a reflection of the high respect reserved for teachers, or a reluctance for teachers to let go in some cases.

Teachers were able to transcend Thai cultural traits, illustrated by the way some students entered the classroom, where the normal acts of deference were not evident. In addition, the use of the grammar-translation method was observed from one teacher, where the activity became much more learner-centered with the introduction of pair-work and groupwork, demonstrating how this teacher-centered activity could transition toward learner-centeredness.

Teachers perceive a lack in confidence in the use of English by both teachers and students and this was particularly relevant when it came to pronunciation and accents of Thai teachers. This can be seen as a threat to face and ego. The belief that native English speakers are the model is still prevalent, even though more non-native speakers are using English today to communicate with each other globally. If teachers lack confidence because of this, and believe that students must also sound like native-speakers, it could have a demotivating effect on the students as well as themselves.

A lack of clarity from the Thai government as to how to implement learner-centered teaching could be a contributing factor to this lack of confidence and what Bernstein (2000) would call an apparent weakening of learner-centeredness at the classroom level allowing for a small element of change, and in some cases only at a superficial level. Once confidence has been built, then there is less chance of ineffective implementation of different teaching and learning procedures which hopefully will be a motivating force for the students in the classroom. Once teachers are confident, learner-centered teaching may not be seen as a threat to face or ego and could be implemented in conjunction with local culture.

There are several implications of this research. One way to boost confidence is the opportunity to use a different model of language competence for under qualified teachers of English in primary schools. A variety of language based on the settings and participants they encounter could be used, allowing for more flexibility in language use for teaching English (Freeman, 2017). It would be of benefit to understand and be able to produce many different kinds of texts and know how to sustain interactions despite the untrained teachers' limitations of knowledge of the L2 (Richards, 2005) and not be concerned that they do not sound native-speaker like. This would alleviate the perceived threat to face felt by teachers. Freeman (2017) explains that native-speakerism does not equal language competence and that effective classroom teaching is taking place. He puts forward English for Teaching as a construct, so that teachers can effectively manage the classroom, understand and convey lesson content, and be able to assess students as well as give feedback. This way general English competence does not lead to deficit thinking by the teachers. Some teachers used PPP as a teaching approach; however, teacher training for primary school teachers requires attention to alleviate the difficulties that teachers experience (OECD/UNESCO, 2016), remembering that language proficiency and teaching ability are not the same (Richards, 2017).

From the data analysis, questions remain concerning the confidence of teachers and students when speaking English, particularly pronunciation. Recent research considering the joint development of teacher cognition and identity through learning to teach L2 pronunciation (Burri, et al., 2017) has shown that when teachers align themselves with course content, have engagement and investment with the course and imagine themselves and others as teachers of pronunciation, they will be able to affect their cognition by interweaving their identity with their cognitive development as they mediate each other. If Thai teachers of English were to develop their beliefs and knowledge of teaching

pronunciation, their perceptions could change with their identity, thus allowing them to boost their confidence and be content with their variety of English pronunciation.

For Thai teachers of English to pass on this new-found confidence to their students, there needs to be a narrowing of the gap between identity, theory and practice (Waller, et al., 2017). With a newfound confidence and an empowered identity, it may be possible for teachers to implement a new type of learner-centered teaching, based on local contexts and culture, which allows them to adopt varying degrees of learner-centeredness as they transition from teacher-centered to learner-centered incrementally on different aspects of learner-centeredness over time. This would allow teachers to implement learner-centered teaching at their own pace which may not attain the eventual goal of achieving all of Blumberg's five dimensions of learner-centered teaching (Blumberg, 2009). In order for this to happen, teacher training institutions would have to be sympathetic to the needs and skills of the teachers, whilst still adhering to the policy laid down by the government. This correlates with what Bax (2003) would call the bringing together of context and methodology, where there is the synthesis of context and methodology, but where the emphasis is intentionally more on the context.

To this end understanding local contexts of teaching in Thailand including aspects of Thai culture and the problems Thai teachers face on a daily basis are important. This could lead to a more dynamic approach to English to improve communicative competence through student engagement, scaffolding and an understanding of the relationship that Thai culture has with this learner-centered pedagogy promoted by the Thai government. This development cycle is what Lave & Wenger (1991) call cycles of communities of practice. These cycles could be used to alleviate possible conflicts felt by teachers of English concerning their culture and learner-centeredness, allowing them to keep their culture but still conduct their classrooms in a learner-centered way. Legitimate peripheral participation

(Lave & Wenger, 1991) takes place in a social world and so in this study Thai culture and the importance it puts on social order and the regulations that follow from that, do not necessarily have to be inconsistent with learner-centeredness in the classroom, but could work towards a new kind of learner-centered approach to teaching English, one where teachers are prepared in their pre-service training for teaching in a learner-centered way and are encouraged to introduce aspects of learner-centered teaching step by step, transitioning from teacher-centered to lower transition, higher transition and finally learner-centered teaching. It is also important to explain to the students what is happening as they too need to understand the changes taking place (Nunan, 1988).

There are limitations to this research. This investigation used a purposive sample of convenience and participants were drawn from only one district in north-eastern Thailand. To increase the validity and reliability of this study, it would have been preferable to have participants from other districts in the north-east included in the sample to give a better representation of the area; however, due to time restrictions and potential logistic difficulties, a convenience sample was chosen from one district. This does give an opportunity for possible further research.

In addition, only one classroom observation per teacher was carried out, two teacher interviews and a group interview of students; however, the justification for two teacher interviews was born out by the more relaxed environment when returning to conduct the second round of interviews and the rich data that these interviews produced. A more harmonious environment based on solid relationships are important character traits of Thai people (Komin, 1991) as well as strong Uncertainty Avoidance (Hofstede, 1980) and this was evident throughout the data collection process. Being part of this research process gave the Thai teachers status amongst their peers, increasing their face and their *chuesiang dee* (Persons, 2008).

This research was undertaken with a view to enhancing my own teaching practice as well as highlighting areas for future research and discussion. My learner-centered teaching has improved throughout the course of my study and this was commented on positively after a recent observation as part of my probationary period at my new place of employment. Furthermore, I am more aware of learner-centeredness when completing my teacher observations at work.

Thai teachers of English could benefit from an appropriate pedagogy which fits both their global and local requirements (Kramsch & Sullivan, 1996); however, Thai culture may play an important part as to whether this can ever be achieved successfully. This research confirms that in Thailand the social rules have a strong influence over the Thai people and the laws that govern the land (Mulder, 1979). Moreover, the pursuit of ego, a predominant fear of failure and a low priority for task completion may also be in direct conflict with the thinking behind productive failure (Kapur, 2008) and learner-centered English language implementation.

Educational change from teacher-centered to learner-centered teaching is a cultural process (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2000), so a culture with a high Power Distance dimension could inadvertently put pressure on teachers to perform, especially when they want to avoid uncertainty (Hofstede, 1986), which is difficult if they are burdened due to combined classes, extracurricular activities and a lack of qualified teachers. In addition, it is very difficult for teachers, and students to learn from their mistakes (Kapur, 2008) through corrective feedback (Long, 1996), due to a lack of comprehensible input (Krashen, 1985) as a result of reduced teaching hours and combined classes, not to mention a shortage of English language practice available outside the classroom for acquisition to take place (Krashen, 1982). The potential anxiety of producing comprehensible output (Krashen,

1998) could be due to Thai cultural traits (Komin, 1991), resulting from the implementation of learner-centered teaching not being an easy task to achieve in the Thai context. It may be that the extraneous cognitive load of learner-centered teaching could prove difficult for both teachers and students in some cases (Schmidt, et al., 2007), resulting in cross-cultural learning difficulties (Hofstede, 1986) due to the hierarchical nature of Thai culture (Hallinger & Kantamara, 2000).

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Appendix A - Observation Grid

Teacher: Time:	Teacher Centered	Lower Level Transition	No Evidence	Higher Level Transition	Learner Centered
The Function of Content	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
The Role of the Teacher	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Responsibility for Learning	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The Balance of Power	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

Adapted from Blumberg (2009)

The Function of Content	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Varied uses of content. 2. Level to which students engage in content. 3. Use of organising schemes. 4. Use of content to facilitate future learning.
The Role of the Teacher	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Creation of an environment for learning through organisation and use of materials that accommodates different learning styles. 2. Alignment of course components – objectives, teaching or learning methods and assessment methods – for consistency. 3. Teaching or learning methods appropriate for student learning goals. 4. Activities involving student, instructor, content interactions. 5. Articulation of SMART objectives: Specific, Measurable, Attainable, Relevant and Time orientated. 6. Motivation of students to learn (intrinsic drive to learn versus extrinsic reasons to earn grades).
The Responsibility for Learning	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Responsibility for learning. 2. Learning to learn skills for the present and the future: Time management, self-monitoring, goal setting and how to do independent reading and how to conduct original research 3. Self-directed lifelong learning skills: Determining a personal need to know more Knowing who to ask and where to seek information Development of self-awareness of students own learning abilities 4. Students' self-assessment of their learning. 5. Students' self-assessment of their strengths and weaknesses 6. Information literacy skills: Framing questions, accessing sources, evaluating sources and evaluating content and using legally
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Assessment within the learning process. 2. Formative assessment. 3. Peer and self-assessment. 4. Demonstration of mastery and ability to learn from mistakes. 5. Justification of the accuracy of answers. 6. Timeframe for feedback. 7. Authentic assessment.
The Balance of Power	<ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. Determination of course content. 2. Expression of alternative perspectives. 3. Determination of how students earn grades. 4. Use of open-ended assignments. 5. Flexibility of course policies, assessment methods, learning methods and deadlines. 6. Opportunities to learn.

Adapted from Blumberg (2009)

Appendix B - An Example of the Fieldnotes

18

19

Lesson 7 - PS. 16 - 9 students - 3 hrs 10 min (1-3:30)

- Good morning - Students spoke to us rather than the teacher - they did it again - laughing.
- Family - Spoke in English confused in Thai, Use of blackboard. Me - father - Mother.
- How many people are there in your family?
- Student fired technology problem before being asked to do so.
- Some students got some books for the teacher when asked to get them.
- Member in family - What is member? Asked some students. Answer given in Thai by teacher. Teacher explained in Thai members of the family.
- Asked students not to speak in Thai or Lao (you). Students went through some family members in English.
- Teacher used blackboard of family - went through members on a whole class activity.
- Use of blackboard - words - Sister etc. Confirmed meaning in Thai by teacher, still.
- Older sister / Younger sister explained in Thai. The older, older / Younger sister.
- Continued with other family members. Including BART. Mother / Father / Parents.
- Concentration on spelling.
- Grandfather / Grandmother - Asked a different student to pronounce grandfather.
- Spelling completed looking at blackboard. Completed by some student blind.
- Under / Out - spelling and explanation in Thai.
- Cousin / Nephew / Niece. (Niece spelled Niece.) - Meaning in Thai by student.
- Look at the pictures. Teacher shows pictures / blackboard. Student short out. Grandmother.
- Student answer as by one. Help from teacher. Spelling. Use of good student to correct.
- Two students helped correct blackboard problem with TV (again) without being asked.
- Good student helped with technology as teacher tried to get up laptop with LEO TV.
- Student standing waiting for internet connection. Pattern with internet.
- Teacher apologized and asked student to work in pairs. How many people are there in your family. Teacher explain connection of her family.
- Work in pair - change pair (9) student.
- Teacher said don't read this or LEO as a student around in Thai.
- Students were 5 mins to work in pairs - not much happening. Teacher began to get the internet connection to work.
- Two students and the Qnt to show. Internet bunts into life. I student in the AGE.
- Two more students. Composition also asked for. Two more - teacher assist with blackboard.
- Don't read this - again.
- Works on the bus - video - mother, baby, people - Students sing and dance.
- finger family - Quality meaning brother, sister, baby. - Copy action + laughing.
- Still problem with internet. Taken time to load. Works on the bus - again + finger family.
- Workbooks - Members of family in workbooks. Teacher demonstrates on blackboard.
- Teacher changes activity - circle the answer. Teacher moves around class. Teacher checks work.
- Revision of vocabulary for homework after watching video on TV. Video video of family.
- Video shows a picture - the word. Video says the word, student copy problems again with internet.
- This is... Different video, slightly confusing for them as it is more conversational.
- Video explains what is a grandma - grandpa - slightly different words. Confusing for teacher reading - asks student to try to listen.
- Revision - then great - grandfather / great - grandmother. Explanation on the board.
- Teacher student interaction - How many people are there in your family? Around the class.

17 - PS. 16 - 9 students

Doll - odd question to individual
Spelling using blackboard - (blackboard covered)
While class, individual

niece spell mentally on blackboard
Answer 1 my!

Student help with technology - computer (2 students)

Participate - How many people are there in your family?
change pairs
There are — people in my family

Shared VDO - which on the bus - not much happened
People / baby / mother / - no longer speaking to
family some - fingers

Copy - PS. 16 - copy from the worksheet
DON'T SPEAK THAI OR LAO

Revision of
Vocabulary
at the end

11th Annual COMTESOL Conference
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228

Appendix C - Conventions and Examples

This transcription key was used to present my interpretation of the words and actions used in the observations, teacher interviews and student group interviews for this study, adapted from Halliday (1989).

...	=	Deleted text including dialogue not heard or understood.
[non-italic]	=	Modifications or supplemental text to assist in the understanding of the text for the reader.
[<i>italic</i>]	=	Non-verbal communication and other outside events.
<i>italic</i>	=	Emphasized words used by teachers, students, translators and the researcher in classroom observations, interviews and group interviews.
T/S	=	Teacher/Student

Time	T/S	Dialogue
26.26	T	เบนซ์ลุกเลยคะ ลุกเลยลุก
26.26	T	Benz stand up. You can stand up.
26.28	T	Okay, good.
26.33	T	อืมมา
26.33	T	Come on, come on.
26.37	T	มา ออกมา
26.37	T	Come, come out.
26.40	S	ผมบ่อออกไปเด้อ ผมเฝ้าเป็น (อีสาน)
26.40	S	I'm not going to go out. I don't know how to speak. [In Isan language]
26.41	T	ไม่ให้พูดเลย ไม่ให้พูดเลย แต่ถ้าใครออกมาทีหลังจะให้พูด
26.41	T	I'm not going to let you speak I'm not. But if who come out the last they get to speak. [student moves to front of class]
26.48	T	โอเค ได้กลุ่มละหนึ่งนะคะ
26.48	T	Okay. We got each one in two groups.
26.51	T	Group one and group two
27.02	T	Okay. Nong Benz point to the jacket. Point to the jacket. Jacket. [student points to jacket]
27.15	T	Okay. That's right.
27.18	T	ถูกต้องค่ะ
27.18	T	That's right.

Appendix D - Semi-structured Interview Questions for Teachers

1. How do you think your class went?
2. Can you tell me something that you were particularly pleased with?
3. Can you tell me something you would like to improve for next time?
4. How do you prepare for your lessons? When preparing for your classes, do you follow any particular teaching approach?
5. Do you know the term 'learner-centered teaching?' How would you describe it?
6. Do you use a learner-centered approach to English language teaching in your classes? Can you give me some examples?
7. What challenges do you face when you teach in a learner-centered way? Can you give me some examples?
8. Does your school encourage you to teach in a learner-centered way? Can you give me some examples?
9. What challenges do your students face when you teach in a learner-centered way? Can you give me some examples?
10. Is the curriculum relevant to your students? How does the curriculum relate to the O-Net tests?
11. What do you think the school could do to improve learner-centered English language teaching? What could they do that would be more helpful for you and your students?
12. What do you think the local education area could do to improve learner-centered English language teaching?
13. What do you think the Ministry of Education could do to improve learner-centered English language teaching?
14. What suggestions do you have to make your job as a teacher better?

Appendix E - Second Round Interview Questions for Teachers

1. Do Thai students lack confidence? – examples.
2. Do Thai teachers of English lack confidence? – examples.
3. Are you satisfied with the English teaching profession or dissatisfied? – examples.
4. Do you see teaching English as being different from teaching other subjects? – examples.
5. How much time is spent at school with students conducting non-academic studies?
- % - opinion?
6. Thai family life and how children are taught to behave as part of Thai society, including Pee/Nong, Keng-jai and reverence of teachers plays a positive or negative part in how children participate in the English language classroom? – examples.
7. How important is the concept of losing face for students? – examples.
8. How important is the concept of losing face for teachers? – examples.
9. What value do students put on education? – certificates?
10. What value do teachers put on education? – career?
11. If there was a conflict between a student and a teacher, which side would the student's parents take, the student or the teacher? – examples.
12. Do older teachers teach in a learner-centered way? – examples – why?
13. Do students ask questions in the English class? – examples.
14. When a teacher asks a question in the English classroom, do students answer readily? – examples.
15. Is there much chance for problem solving and innovation for your students in the English class? Not the teacher's ideas, but the students?
16. Do students want to solve problems and innovate? – examples - why/why not?
17. Is there ever an intellectual disagreement between a student and a teacher? – examples.
18. Do teachers seek ideas from parents? – examples – why/why not?
19. Do Thai teachers of English think of themselves as experts? – examples.
20. Do Thai teachers in other subjects think of themselves as experts? – examples.
21. Is there a difference as to how teachers perceive themselves? – examples.

22. Is there corporal punishment in Thai schools? – examples.
23. Do students fail classes at school? – examples.
24. How do students choose their subjects for M1-M6?
25. How do you vary the use of content in class? – examples.
26. How engaged are the students when learning English? – examples.
27. Chance for future learning? – examples.
28. How do you accommodate different learning styles? – examples.
29. How do students, teachers and content interact? – examples.
30. Do you usually achieve your goals / student goals? – examples.
31. Are students motivated to learn? – your class / in general?
32. Who is responsible for student learning? Teachers or students?
33. Does soft skill development take place in your classroom? – examples.
34. Do you sometimes let students assess themselves? – examples.
35. Do students conduct peer assessment in your class?
36. Do your students learn from their mistakes? – examples.
37. Do your students ask for justification of answers?
38. How do your students react to feedback? – examples.
39. Are students encouraged to give alternative perspectives and answers? – examples.
40. Can students influence course content?
41. Can teachers decide how grades are given?
42. Do you use open ended assignments?
43. Flexibility as to deadlines, methods, assessment to cater for student needs? – examples.
44. Increased opportunities to learn? – examples.

Appendix F - Group Interview Questions for Students

1. Do you like learning English at school? What do you like? What don't you like?
2. Do you like learning in groups or on your own? Why?
3. Do you like your text-book that you use in your English classroom? Why/why not?

What can your teacher do to make it better?

4. Do you play games in your English language classroom? Can you give me some examples?
5. Which is more difficult writing English or speaking English? Why?

Can you give me some examples?

6. What other things do you think are difficult about learning English at school?
7. Do you sing songs in your English language classroom? What songs do you like? Why do you like that song?
8. Do you like speaking English in your English language classroom? When do you speak English? What do you speak about?

9. Which do you find easier, listening to English or reading English? Why?

Can you give me some examples?

10. What other things do you think are easy about learning English at school?
11. Do you watch videos in your English language classroom? What videos do you like? Why?

12. Do you like it when your teacher marks your written work? Why/why not?

Is it better when your teacher marks your written work or when your friend marks it?

13. Do you use English at home or outside the classroom? Can you give me some examples?

Do you practice English with your friends?

14. Do you get the opportunity to speak to foreigners to practice your English?
15. What can the school do to make learning English better or more fun?

16. Do you think it is a good idea to learn English? Why/why not?

Appendix G - Consent Form (Student - English)

The Thailand English Language and Culture Project

Steven Graham

English Lecturer
Rajamangala University of Technology Isan (RMUTI)
150 Si Chan Road, Nai Muang
Khon Kaen
40000



The Open
University

Please initial box

I confirm that I have read and understand the information sheet for the above study and have had the opportunity to ask questions.

☐

I understand that the participation of my child is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason.

☐

I agree to my child taking part in the above study.

☐

I agree that my data gathered in this study may be stored (after it has been anonymised) in a specialist data centre and may be used for future research.

☐

Please tick box

Yes No

I agree to my child's classroom activities being audio recorded.

☐☐

I agree to my child's classroom activities being video recorded.

☐☐

I agree to my child taking part in surveys, questionnaires and interviews.

☐☐

I agree to my child's socio-economic details being used for research purposes.

☐☐

I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications.

☐☐

Name of Parent or Guardian

Date

Signature

Name of Researcher

Date

Signature



หนังสือให้ความยินยอม

โครงการการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษและวัฒนธรรมในประเทศไทย

สตีฟ เกรแฮม

อาจารย์ผู้สอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี วิทยาเขตขอนแก่น

150 ถ. ศรีจันทร์ ต. ในเมือง

อ. เมือง

จ. ขอนแก่น

40000

โปรดใส่เครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงใน □ เมื่อท่านยินยอมตามข้อความต่อไปนี้

ข้าพเจ้าขอยืนยันว่า ข้าพเจ้าได้อ่านและทำความเข้าใจเอกสารข้อมูล และได้รับโอกาสในการถามคำถามที่เกี่ยวข้องกับงานวิจัยนี้ □

ข้าพเจ้าเข้าใจ การมีส่วนร่วมของนักเรียนเป็นไปด้วยความสมัครใจและเต็มใจที่จะถอนตัวเวลาใดก็ได้ โดยปราศจากการให้เหตุผล □

ข้าพเจ้ายินยอมที่จะให้มีการเก็บข้อมูลของข้าพเจ้าในการศึกษาวิจัยนี้ (และไม่ระบุชื่อ) ในศูนย์ ข้อมูลพิเศษและจะใช้สำหรับการวิจัยในอนาคต □

ข้าพเจ้ายินยอมที่จะให้มีการบันทึกเสียงของกิจกรรมในชั้นเรียนของบุตรหลาน □

ข้าพเจ้ายินยอมที่จะให้มีการบันทึกภาพวิดีโอของกิจกรรมในชั้นเรียนของบุตรหลาน □

ข้าพเจ้ายินยอมที่จะให้บุตรหลานตอบแบบสำรวจ แบบสอบถาม และการสัมภาษณ์ □

ข้าพเจ้ายินยอมให้นำข้อมูลด้านสังคมและเศรษฐกิจของบุตรหลานไปใช้ในการศึกษาวิจัยนี้ □

ข้าพเจ้ายินยอมที่จะให้ใช้การอ้างแบบไม่ระบุชื่อในการเผยแพร่ □

.....
ชื่อของบิดามารดาหรือผู้ปกครอง วันที่ลายมือชื่อ

.....
ชื่อผู้วิจัย วันที่ลายมือชื่อ

Appendix I - Information Sheet (Student - English)

The Thailand English Language and Culture Project

Steven Graham
English Lecturer
Rajamangala University of Technology Isan (RMUTI)
150 Si Chan Road, Nai Muang
Khon Kaen
40000



**The Open
University**

Dear Parent or Guardian,

You are invited to take part in a research study. It is important for you to understand why the research is being undertaken and what it will involve. Please read the following information carefully.

What is the purpose of the study?

The study is taking place in order to better understand the relationship between Thai culture and how students learn the English language in Thailand. The project is part of a Doctor of Education study which will be published in the hope that it will benefit the Thai education system.

Why has my child been invited to participate?

Your child is in primary education and these classes have been chosen for this particular research. There will be students taking part from many different schools.

Does my child have to take part?

Taking part in the research is entirely voluntary. If you decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason. By choosing to either take part or not take part in the study it will have no impact on your child's marks, assessments or future studies.

What will happen to my child if they take part?

This research project will cost you nothing and will involve your child being video taped while they are taking part in one of their English classes.

In addition, they may be interviewed in small groups. Your child's teacher will also be interviewed as part of the research process.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

Taking part in this project will have no impact on your child's marks, assessments or future studies. The long-term aim is that it will help improve Thailand's education system.

Will data collected from my child be kept confidential?

All information collected about the children taking part in this study will be kept confidential. The data will be kept strictly confidential (subject to legal limitations) and confidentiality, privacy and anonymity will be ensured in the collection, storage and publication of research material.

The data generated in the course of the research will be anonymised and kept securely in paper or electronic form for a period of ten years after the completion of the research project.

What should I do if I want to take part?

For your child to take part in this study, complete and sign the attached consent form and return to your school as soon as possible.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of this research will be published, copies of which will be supplied to parents who request it.

Who is organising and funding the research?

The research is being conducted by Steven Graham who is a faculty member of Rajamangala University of Technology Isan.

Who has reviewed the study?

This research has been approved by The Open University in UK and forms part of Steven Graham's Doctor of Education studies.

Contact for Further Information

Steven Graham
English Lecturer
Rajamangala University of Technology Isan (RMUTI)
150 Si Chan Road, Nai Muang
Khon Kaen
40000

shed_chelsea@hotmail.com

Dr. Elizabeth J Erling
Lecturer (International Teacher Ed)
The Open University Faculty of Education and Languages Studies
Department of Education

elizabeth.erling@open.ac.uk

or your school Director.

Thank you for taking part in this research project.



เอกสารข้อมูล

โครงการการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษและวัฒนธรรมในประเทศไทย

สตีฟ เกรแฮม

อาจารย์ผู้สอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี วิทยาเขตขอนแก่น

150 ถ. ศรีจันทร์ ต. ในเมือง

อ. เมือง

จ. ขอนแก่น

40000

เรียน ท่านผู้ปกครองนักเรียน

ท่านได้รับเชิญให้มีส่วนร่วมในการศึกษาวิจัย เป็นสิ่งสำคัญสำหรับท่านที่จะได้เข้าใจว่า ทำไมจึงมีการศึกษาวิจัยและมีส่วนใดที่จะเกี่ยวข้อง โปรดอ่านอย่างละเอียดถี่ถ้วน

เหตุผลของการศึกษาวิจัยคืออะไร

การศึกษานี้มีจุดประสงค์เพื่อสร้างความเข้าใจในความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างวัฒนธรรมไทยกับวิธีการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนในประเทศไทย นอกจากนี้งานวิจัยดังกล่าวยังเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาในระดับปริญญาเอกซึ่งจะได้รับการตีพิมพ์เพื่อหวังว่าจะเป็นประโยชน์ให้แกระบบการศึกษาไทยต่อไป

ทำไมบุตรหลานของข้าพเจ้าได้รับการเชิญให้มีส่วนร่วม

บุตรหลานของท่านอยู่ในชั้นประถมศึกษาปีที่ 4, 5 หรือ 6 และเป็นชั้นเรียนที่จะได้รับเลือกให้อยู่ในการศึกษาวิจัยนี้ และยังมีนักเรียนจากโรงเรียนอื่นๆ เข้าร่วมในงานวิจัยครั้งนี้ด้วย

บุตรหลานของข้าพเจ้าจำเป็นต้องมีส่วนร่วมหรือไม่

การมีส่วนร่วมในงานวิจัยนี้ เป็นไปด้วยความสมัครใจ ถ้าท่านตัดสินใจที่จะมีส่วนร่วมในการศึกษาวิจัยนี้ ท่านจะได้รับเอกสารข้อมูลไว้เก็บรักษา และขอให้องค์ยินยอมตามหนังสือการให้ความยินยอม ถ้าท่านได้ตัดสินใจที่จะร่วมในการศึกษาวิจัย ท่านก็มีสิทธิ์ที่จะสามารถถอนตัวในเวลาใดก็ได้ และปราศจากที่จะให้เหตุผล การเลือกที่จะร่วมหรือไม่ร่วมในการศึกษาวิจัยนี้ จะไม่ส่งผลต่อคะแนน การประเมินผลหรือการศึกษาในอนาคตของบุตรหลานของท่าน

สิ่งที่จะเกิดขึ้นแก่บุตรหลานของท่านถ้ามีส่วนร่วมในโครงการนี้

โครงการวิจัยนี้ ท่านจะไม่เสียค่าใช้จ่ายใดๆ ทั้งสิ้น จะมีการบันทึกเทปวิดีโอบุตรหลานของท่านระหว่างที่มีการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ นอกจากนี้บุตรหลานของท่าน รวมถึงครูผู้สอนอาจเข้ามามีบทบาทในกระบวนการสัมภาษณ์ในงานวิจัยดังกล่าวด้วย

ข้อมูลสำหรับการวิจัยนี้จะถูกรวบรวมและเก็บไว้เป็นความลับ

ข้อมูลที่เป็นส่วนตัวทั้งหมดของครูและนักเรียนที่มีส่วนร่วมในงานวิจัยนี้จะถูกรวบรวมและจัดเก็บเก็บไว้เป็นความลับ (ภายใต้ข้อบังคับของกฎหมาย)

ประโยชน์อะไรที่จะเกิดขึ้นจากการมีส่วนร่วม

การมีส่วนร่วมในโครงการนี้จะไม่ส่งผลกระทบต่อคะแนน การประเมินหรือการศึกษาในอนาคตของบุตรหลานของท่านแต่อย่างใด และจุดมุ่งหมายในระยะยาวของโครงการคือช่วยปรับปรุงระบบการศึกษาของประเทศไทย

ข้าพเจ้าจะต้องทำอะไรถ้าข้าพเจ้าต้องการมีส่วนร่วม

สำหรับบุตรหลานของท่านที่จะร่วมในการศึกษาวิจัยนี้ ให้ตอบแบบสอบถามและลงลายมือชื่อตามหนังสือให้ความยินยอมและส่งกลับคืนที่โรงเรียนของบุตรหลานเร็วที่สุดเท่าที่จะเป็นไปได้

สิ่งที่จะเกิดขึ้นกับผลของการศึกษา

ผลของการศึกษางานวิจัยนี้จะได้รับการตีพิมพ์ลงในวารสารและสำเนาจะถูกส่งไปยังผู้ปกครองที่ร้องขอ

ใครคือผู้ดำเนินโครงการและสนับสนุนการศึกษานี้

การศึกษานี้ ดำเนินการโดย **Mr. Steven Graham** (สตีเวน เกรแฮม) ผู้ซึ่งเป็นบุคลากรของมหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี วิทยาเขตดอนเมือง

ใครคือผู้ทบทวนการศึกษานี้

การศึกษานี้ จะได้รับการอนุมัติโดย **The Open University** ในประเทศอังกฤษ และการศึกษาในระดับปริญญาเอกของสตีเวน เกรแฮม

ติดต่อหาข้อมูลรายละเอียดเพิ่มเติมได้ที่

สตีฟ เกรแฮม

อาจารย์ผู้สอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี วิทยาเขตดอนเมือง

150 ถ. ศรีจันทร์ ต. ในเมือง

อ. เมือง

จ. ขอนแก่น

40000

shed_chelsea@hotmail.com

Dr. Elizabeth J Erling

Lecturer (International Teacher Ed)

The Open University Faculty of Education and Languages Studies

Department of Education

elizabeth.erling@open.ac.uk

หรือ ผู้อำนวยการโรงเรียนของท่าน

ขอบคุณท่านที่มีส่วนร่วมในโครงการศึกษานี้

Appendix K - Consent Form (Teacher - English)

The Thailand English Language and Culture Project

Steven Graham
English Lecturer
Rajamangala University of Technology Isan (RMUTI)
150 Si Chan Road, Nai Muang
Khon Kaen
40000



The Open
University

Please initial box

I confirm that I have had the opportunity to ask questions concerning the project.

☐

I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to withdraw at any time, without giving reason.

☐

I agree to take part in the above study.

☐

I agree that my data gathered in this study may be stored (after it has been anonymised) in a specialist data centre and may be used for future research.

☐

Please tick box

Yes

No

I agree to classroom activities being audio recorded.

☐☐

I agree to classroom activities being video recorded.

☐☐

I agree to take part in surveys, questionnaires and interviews.

☐☐

I agree to my socio-economic details being used for research purposes.

☐☐

I agree to the use of anonymised quotes in publications.

☐☐

Name of Participant

Date

Signature

Name of Researcher

Date

Signature



หนังสือให้ความยินยอม

โครงการการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษและวัฒนธรรมในประเทศไทย

สตีฟ เกรแฮม

อาจารย์ผู้สอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี วิทยาเขตขอนแก่น

150 ถ. ศรีจันทร์ ต. ในเมือง

อ. เมือง

จ. ขอนแก่น

40000

โปรดใส่เครื่องหมาย ✓ ลงใน □ เมื่อท่านยินยอมตามข้อความต่อไปนี้

ข้าพเจ้าขอยืนยันว่า ข้าพเจ้าได้รับโอกาสในการถามคำถามที่เกี่ยวข้องกับงานวิจัยนี้ □

ข้าพเจ้าเข้าใจ การมีส่วนร่วมของนักเรียนเป็นไปด้วยความสมัครใจและเต็มใจที่จะ
ถอนตัวเวลาใดก็ได้ โดยปราศจากการให้เหตุผล □

ข้าพเจ้ายินยอมที่จะให้มีการเก็บข้อมูลของข้าพเจ้าในการศึกษาวิจัยนี้ (และไม่ระบุชื่อ)
ในศูนย์ ข้อมูลพิเศษและจะใช้สำหรับการวิจัยในอนาคต □

ข้าพเจ้ายินยอมที่จะให้มีการบันทึกเสียงของกิจกรรมในชั้นเรียน □

ข้าพเจ้ายินยอมที่จะให้มีการบันทึกภาพวิดีโอของกิจกรรมในชั้นเรียน □

ข้าพเจ้ายินยอมตอบแบบสำรวจ แบบสอบถามและการสัมภาษณ์ □

ข้าพเจ้ายินยอมให้นำข้อมูลด้านสังคมและเศรษฐกิจของข้าพเจ้าไปใช้ในการศึกษาวิจัยนี้ □

ข้าพเจ้ายินยอมที่จะให้ใช้การอ้างแบบไม่ระบุชื่อในการเผยแพร่ □

.....
ชื่อผู้เข้าร่วม วันที่ ลายมือชื่อ

.....
ชื่อผู้วิจัย วันที่ ลายมือชื่อ

Appendix M - Information Sheet (Teacher - English)

The Thailand English Language and Culture Project

Steven Graham
English Lecturer
Rajamangala University of Technology Isan
150 Si Chan Road
Tambon Nai Muang
Amphur Muang, Khon Kaen
40000



The Open
University

Dear Teacher,

You are invited to take part in a research study. It is important for you to understand why the research is being undertaken and what it will involve. Please read the following information carefully.

What is the purpose of the study?

The study is taking place in order to better understand the relationship between Thai culture and how students learn the English language in Thailand. The project is part of a Doctor of Education study which will be published in the hope that it will benefit the Thai education system.

Why have you been invited to participate?

You are a teacher in primary education and these classes have been chosen for this particular research. There will be teachers and students taking part from many different schools.

Do I have to take part?

Taking part in the research is entirely voluntary. *If you decide to take part you will be given this information sheet to keep and be asked to sign a consent form. If you decide to take part you are still free to withdraw at any time and without giving a reason.* By choosing to either take part or not take part in the study it will have no impact on your work.

What will happen if I take part?

This research project will cost you nothing and will involve one of your classes being video taped while you are teaching one of your English classes. In addition, some of your students will be interviewed in small groups.

What are the possible benefits of taking part?

Taking part in this project will have no impact on you or your students' marks, assessments or future studies. The long-term aim is that it will help improve Thailand's education system.

Will data collected for this research be kept confidential?

All information collected about the teachers and children taking part in this study will be kept confidential. The data will be kept strictly confidential (subject to legal limitations) and confidentiality, privacy and anonymity will be ensured in the collection, storage and publication of research material.

The data generated in the course of the research will be anonymised and kept securely in paper or electronic form for a period of ten years after the completion of the research project.

What should I do if I want to take part?

For you to take part in this study, complete and sign the attached consent form and return to your school as soon as possible.

What will happen to the results of the research study?

The results of this research will be published, copies of which will be supplied to teachers and parents who request it.

Who is organising and funding the research?

The research is being conducted by Steven Graham who is a faculty member of Rajamangala University of Technology Isan.

Who has reviewed the study?

This research has been approved by The Open University in UK and forms part of Steven Graham's Doctor of Education studies.

Contact for Further Information

Steven Graham
English Lecturer
Rajamangala University of Technology Isan
150 Si Chan Road
Tambon Nai Muang
Amphur Muang, Khon Kaen
40000
shed_chelsea@hotmail.com

Dr. Elizabeth J Erling
Lecturer (International Teacher Ed)
The Open University
Faculty of Education and Languages Studies
Department of Education
elizabeth.erling@open.ac.uk

or your school Director.

Thank you for taking part in this research project.



เอกสารข้อมูล

โครงการการเรียนรู้ภาษาอังกฤษและวัฒนธรรมในประเทศไทย

สตีฟ เกรแฮม

อาจารย์ผู้สอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมงคลธัญบุรี วิทยาเขตขอนแก่น

150 ถ. ศรีจันทร์ ต. ในเมือง

อ. เมือง

จ. ขอนแก่น

40000

เรียน ครูผู้สอน

ท่านได้รับเชิญให้มีส่วนร่วมในการศึกษาวิจัย เป็นสิ่งสำคัญสำหรับท่านที่จะได้เข้าใจว่า ทำไมจึงมีการศึกษาวิจัยและมีส่วนใดที่จะเกี่ยวข้อง โปรดอ่านอย่างละเอียดถี่ถ้วน

เหตุผลของการศึกษาวิจัยคืออะไร

การศึกษานี้มีจุดประสงค์เพื่อสร้างความเข้าใจในความสัมพันธ์ระหว่างวัฒนธรรมไทยกับวิธีการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของนักเรียนในประเทศไทย นอกจากนี้งานวิจัยดังกล่าวยังเป็นส่วนหนึ่งของการศึกษาในระดับปริญญาเอกซึ่งจะได้รับการตีพิมพ์เพื่อหวังว่าจะเป็นประโยชน์ให้แกระบบการศึกษาไทยต่อไป

ทำไมท่านได้รับการเชิญให้มีส่วนร่วม

ท่านเป็นครูอยู่ที่ทำการสอนที่โรงเรียนรัฐบาลในชั้นประถมศึกษาปีที่ 4, 5 หรือ 6 และเป็นชั้นเรียนที่จะได้รับเลือกให้อยู่ในการศึกษาวิจัยนี้ และยังมีครูและนักเรียนจากโรงเรียนอื่นๆ เข้าร่วมในงานวิจัยครั้งนี้ด้วย

ข้าพเจ้าจำเป็นต้องมีส่วนร่วมหรือไม่

การมีส่วนร่วมในงานวิจัยนี้ เป็นไปด้วยความสมัครใจ ถ้าท่านตัดสินใจที่จะมีส่วนร่วมในการศึกษาวิจัยนี้ ท่านจะได้รับเอกสารข้อมูลไว้เก็บรักษา และขอให้ลงชื่อยินยอมตามหนังสือการให้ความยินยอม ถ้าท่านได้ตัดสินใจที่จะร่วมในการศึกษาวิจัย ท่านก็มีสิทธิที่จะสามารถถอนตัวในเวลาใดก็ได้ และปราศจากที่จะให้เหตุผล การเลือกที่จะร่วมหรือไม่ร่วมในการศึกษาวิจัยนี้ จะไม่ส่งผลกระทบต่อการทำงานของงานของท่าน

สิ่งที่จะเกิดขึ้นแก่ท่านถ้ามีส่วนร่วมในโครงการนี้

โครงการวิจัยนี้ ท่านจะไม่เสียค่าใช้จ่ายใดๆ ทั้งสิ้น จะมีการบันทึกเทปวิดีโอบรรยายภาคในห้องเรียนของท่านขณะที่มีการเรียนการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ นอกจากนี้นักเรียนของท่านจะเข้ามาสัมภาษณ์ในกระบวนการสัมภาษณ์ในงานวิจัยดังกล่าวด้วย

ประโยชน์อะไรที่จะเกิดขึ้นจากการมีส่วนร่วม

การมีส่วนร่วมในโครงการนี้จะไม่ส่งผลกระทบต่อคะแนน การประเมินหรือการศึกษาในอนาคตของท่านหรือนักเรียนของท่านแต่อย่างใด และจุดมุ่งหมายในระยะยาวของโครงการคือช่วยปรับปรุงระบบการศึกษาของประเทศไทย

ข้อมูลสำหรับการวิจัยนี้จะถูกรวบรวมและเก็บไว้เป็นความลับ

ข้อมูลที่เป็นส่วนตัวทั้งหมดของครูและนักเรียนที่มีส่วนร่วมในงานวิจัยนี้จะถูกรวบรวมและจัดเก็บเก็บไว้เป็นความลับ (ภายใต้ข้อบังคับของกฎหมาย)

ข้าพเจ้าจะต้องทำอะไรถ้าข้าพเจ้าต้องการมีส่วนร่วม

สำหรับบุคลากรของท่านที่จะร่วมในการศึกษาวิจัยนี้ ให้ตอบแบบสอบถามและลงลายมือชื่อตามหนังสือให้ความยินยอมและส่งกลับคืนที่โรงเรียนของบุคลากรเร็วที่สุดเท่าที่จะเป็นไปได้

สิ่งที่จะเกิดขึ้นกับผลของการศึกษา

ผลของการศึกษางานวิจัยนี้จะได้รับการตีพิมพ์ลงในวารสารและสำเนาจะถูกส่งไปยังผู้ปกครองที่ร้องขอ

ใครคือผู้ดำเนินโครงการและสนับสนุนการศึกษาวิจัยในครั้งนี้

การศึกษาวิจัยในครั้งนี้ ดำเนินการโดย Mr. Steven Graham (สตีเวน แกรแฮม) ผู้ซึ่งเป็นบุคลากรของมหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมณฑลอีสัน วิทยาเขตขอนแก่น

ใครคือผู้ทบทวนการศึกษาวิจัยนี้

การศึกษาวิจัยนี้ จะได้รับการอนุมัติโดย The Open University ในประเทศอังกฤษ และการศึกษาในระดับปริญญาเอกของสตีเวน แกรแฮม

ติดต่อหาข้อมูลรายละเอียดเพิ่มเติมได้ที่

สตีฟ แกรแฮม

อาจารย์ผู้สอนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษ

มหาวิทยาลัยเทคโนโลยีราชมณฑลอีสัน วิทยาเขตขอนแก่น

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หรือ ผู้อำนวยการโรงเรียนของท่าน

ขอบคุณท่านที่มีส่วนร่วมในโครงการศึกษาวิจัยนี้

Appendix O - An Example of One Complete Teacher Interview

Time	T1 = (Teacher), TT* = (Translator), R* = (Researcher)	Translate T=Thai, E=English
01.43	R*	E: How do you prepare your lessons? When you get ready for your classes, the reason that I'm asking is what sort of approach do you have to teaching we have many approaches like **silent way** grammar translation teacher centered learner centered do you have any particular way? Do you have your own style? What is it you do to get ready?
02.07	T1	E: You mean before I teach them?
02.09	R*	E: Yeah. When you prepare yeah.
02.10	T1	E: First I look for the book and study for the detail in student book.
02.19	R*	E: In the students book?
02.19	T1	E: And plan many thing for the lesson.
02.25	R*	E: When you go and teach, what style of teaching you say you're teaching is? Yeah? I've mention some styles like silent way and teacher centered learner centered do you think you have a certain style?
02.38	TT*	T: ก็คือในการสอนของเราเนี่ยมันจะมีสไตล์ของเราใช่ไหมคะแล้วสไตล์การสอนของเราเนี่ยเราใช้คืออะไรเป็นหลักคะ? E: When you teach you have your own style right? And what style do you maintain?
02.45	T1	E: For me, I think we have to make the student not be serious and do everything for them to be happy funny maybe funny, when they study with me they will laugh all
03.03	R*	E: Well I do think so yeah. I see you laughing too so I suppose if the teachers are happy as well and the students are happy. But yeah ok so your focus are on the students alright. That's what you're focusing on. That the name of that of concentrating on students is called learner centeredness or students centered teaching this is the name that academics give.
03.28	T1	E: I think student centered and both student centered before we teach them we have to...
03.40	T1	T: อธิบายยังไง E: How to explain.
03.42	TT*	T: หมายถึงคำอธิบาย? E: You mean the explanation?
03.44	T1	T: ครับ E: Yes.
03.47	TT*	E: He say he use **for** center because sometimes teacher need to explain to student to make sure they understand.
03.55	T1	E: After then let them to think about what I say what let them do let them think themselves.

04.06	R*	E: Now you mention about using maybe multimedia and other things in your classroom, you used to mention that that maybe next time you will do that sort of thing, uhm
04.21	R*	E: What do you do in your classes not just the one that we saw but in your English language teaching, what do you do to activities that concentrate on what the students need what sort of things do you do what activities?
04.38	TT*	T: ก็คือมีกิจกรรมอะไรไหมคะที่เน้นไปที่นักเรียน? E: Do you have any activities the is focusing on the student?
04.43	T1	E: May be with just ahh mind map about the topic for the vocabulary that has animals family member yeah let they do let them make mind map for themselves.
05.08	R*	E: What do you think about penguin yeah? Penguin yeah in a my map which family as it go to penguin it's difficult isn't it penguin?
05.18	T1	E: It's animal
05.20	R*	E: Yeah, it's animal but which family of animal?
05.23	T1	T: ยังไงครับ? E: How?
05.24	TT*	T: ก็คือแพนกวินมันจะเป็นกลุ่มตระกูลไหนคะ มันยากไหมสำหรับการทำมายแมปตรงนั้น? E: Well, which is the penguin family clan? Is it difficult for doing mind mapping at that part?
05.31	T1	T: ก็ไม่ยากครับ E: Not difficult.
05.32	T1	E: it's not difficult.
05.34	R*	E: If ahh when students are thinking for example you could have uhm animals with four legs animals with two legs.
05.42	T1	E: Ohh one legs two legs ok.
05.43	R*	E: Birds red tiles and sometimes it's more than one yeah and that's like the magic of mind map is the you don't have to be perfect on this yeah? I think it's this one but penguins are bird but it has two legs yeah and people can be fighting about it yeah it's that's why mind maps maybe good when you try and play like that.
06.03	R*	E: You mention vocabulary yeah, is that important for you? Vocabulary?
06.09	TT*	T: คำศัพท์สำคัญมากไหมคะสำหรับตัวเองอะคะ? E: For you do you think vocabularies are very important?
06.13	T1	T: อ้อ สำคัญ E: Ahh Yes.
06.14	T1	E: It's very important because we have to use in the they have to use it in their learning in the lesson.
06.22	R*	E: So when you are teaching your class what challenges what problems do you face when you are teaching your students?
06.29	T1	E: First before I teach them?
06.32	R*	E: Before and when you are teaching them as well.
06.35	T1	E: When I give the vocabulary give them to remember cause in every lesson they will get about ten or eight word to them for them to remember and use in the lesson.
06.51	R*	E: Ok. So you've given the vocabulary and you use them in the next lesson ok. That's cool yeah.

06.58	R*	E: When you're teaching your class, I like to know about the problems if you're trying to I don't know if you do mind maps or anything in your class, do the students have problems in understanding what they have to do and how to do things?
07.12	T1	E: Sometime I use the word card and play the game choose another one first the first choose the next one next one next one the person who have the...
07.34	T1	T: ที่ยังไม่ได้พูดคำศัพท์ E: That hasn't said the vocabulary.
07.37	TT*	E: Which student who not give the answer or who cannot say the words.
07.41	T1	E: They will be active.
07.42	R*	E: Right. Ok yeah.
07.44	T1	E: Because maybe the next one is maybe him.
07.46	R*	E: Yes yes.
07.47	TT*	T: คือกระตุ้นใช่ไหม? E: Activate right?
07.48	T1	T: กระตุ้นครับ E: Activate.
07.48	TT*	E: Give the pressure.
07.49	R*	E: So they don't know that who's next yeah that's good. If they know what's coming next they can plan the answers it's boring yeah but if they don't know...
07.56	T1	E: Yeah. *****thinking try.
07.58	R*	E: Yeah that's right that's good.
08.05	R*	E: What encouragement does the school give you, when you're teaching English what do the things that they do to help you?
08.13	T1	E: Just the book and work book.
08.16	R*	E: So you mention about multimedia do you have access to...
08.18	T1	E: Ahh multimedia yes, they give. sometime I use video to share the dialog of hotel, hotel booking for but that lesson I give with Matthayom three.
08.32	R*	E: Sure sure. But they do help you with but you have a TV or something that you can do yeah? Ok good.
08.41	R*	E: What about assessment? How do you assess your students barring your mind that of course we have midterm and we have final yeah? How do you assess your students normally in your class?
08.53	TT*	T: ก็คือปกติแล้วเราจะมีข้อสอบมิดเทอมละก็ปลายเทอมใช่ไหมคะ ทีนี้เนื้อเรื่องการทำข้อสอบเก็บคะแนนในช่วงเวลาเรียนมีไหมคะ เราทำยังไงคะ? E: Normally, we have the midterm and the final test right? Do you an examination for collecting points while learning? How do you do it?
09.05	T1	E: Oh yes. In the lesson I keep sixty point and forty point in the last final.
09.17	R*	E: So how often do you assess them? Are you doing it every lesson or at the end of the unit? When do you assess them?
09.26	T1	E: Maybe quiz by quiz for thirty point for a piece two times.
09.35	TT*	T: ก็คือประจำปีรึว่า?

		E: Of the year or?
09.39	T1	T: ก็คือในหกสิบคะแนนที่เก็บจะแบ่งเป็นสามสิบคะแนนเป็นควิชย่อยครึ่งละก็อีกสามสิบจะเป็นมิดเทอมที่เหลือสี่สิบก็จะเป็นไฟนอล E: There're sixty point all together, thirty point for the quiz test and another thirty would be the midterm test and the forty points left would be the final test.
09.53	TT*	E: Ok. He ahh give thirty percent for the quiz for sort time and other thirty percent for midterm test and other forty for final test.
10.05	R*	E: And who? Who makes the midterm test and the final test?
10.10	T1	E: I do it with myself.
10.11	R*	E: You do it yourself. Ok ok. And which class did we look at? We looked at Pratom...
10.16	TT*	T: ชั้นไหนคะที่...? E: What level that...?
10.18	T1	E: P. five.
10.19	TT*	E: P. five students.
10.19	R*	E: P. five ok. And you say you teach Matthayom as well yeah?
10.23	TT*	T: สอนมัธยมด้วยใช่ไหมคะ? E: You teach Matthayom too right?
10.26	T1	E: This term I'm not teaching because they ahh another teacher
10.32	R*	E: So do you teach? Who teaches Pratom six?
10.36	T1	E: Yeah. Pratom six.
10.37	R*	E: You teach Pratom six. So you understand about O-Net?
10.40	T1	E: O-Net, yeah.
10.42	R*	E: I saw you down there.
10.43	TT*	E: Yeah, I just ahh train.
10.44	R*	E: Yeah, we saw you there.
10.46	R*	E: So what do you think? What is your opinion about O-Net test?
10.51	T1	E: O-Net test ahh I think it's the high standard for the student more high standard.
11.01	R*	E: So you do your testing you have your midterm your final and your assessment then you have the O-Net test, so are you saying the O-Net test is more difficult?
11.12	T1	E: Yeah, more difficult. Because the lesson in ***** it's just easy lesson but for the detail of the O-Net it's like the university *****.
11.23	R*	E: Okay. That's actually quit fair because I can say that I teach some Pratom five and Pratom six work to my university students that's true. He actually come out with it he said it not me alright but that is actually true the subjects I actually cover that in some of my university students. So okay that's interesting so uhm.
11.47	R*	E: Is it the things in the O-Net test are the same subjects but it's just more difficult? Is that what you're saying cause you said the standard was high?
11.55	T1	E: I think it's the different thing it's the vocabulary.
12.00	R*	E: Ok ok. Can see vocabulary is important.

12.10	R*	E: What about the curriculum you have
12.14	T1	E: Curriculum?
12.14	R*	E: Yeah, if we look at the curriculum for Pratom five this class, in the book it's in English so I looked at the curriculum you have curriculum fifty-one and you have say grade five Pratom five and they said that English foreign language this is the curriculum. Can you do all of that in one year?
12.35	T1	E: Of all the curriculum? Can I use it all it in one year?
12.38	R*	E: Can you **fit it in everything one-hundred** percent in one year?
12.43	T1	E: Sometime I can but sometime not because the teacher have been with the student for time just the first term in the second term we have many activities such as ***** and sport yeah, so in the second term
13.01	R*	E: Second semester second term is different alright.
13.03	T1	E: Yeah, maybe we cannot finish the curriculum.
13.07	R*	E: Okay, so if you cannot finish the curriculum, can you tell me roughly how many percent how much can you?
13.14	T1	E: For me I can do about eighty to ninety percent is curriculum.
13.19	R*	E: Okay, so you have many many activities to do in the second semester ahh sports and other things in festivals. What about administration about paper work do you have much paper work to do administration?
13.34	T1	E: For the paper?
13.35	R*	E: Paper work.
13.36	T1	E: Yeah.
13.37	R*	E: So you have that as a duty as well, is that the same for all the teachers?
13.41	TT*	T: คือเหมือนกับคุณครูท่านอื่นๆเหมือนกันใช่ไหมคะเกี่ยวกับเอกสารที่เราต้องทำ? E: Is it the same for other teachers? About the documents that have to do.
13.47	T1	T: ก็เหมือนกันครับ E: The same.
13.48	T1	E: The same.
13.49	TT*	E: The same.
13.49	R*	E: It's the same, okay.
13.54	R*	E: What could the school do to help, your school here what could the school do to help you and the other English teachers here? what could you do? What could they do to help you?
14.06	T1	E: What could they do...
14.08	R*	E: Like a wish yeah?
14.15	T1	E: Maybe give me the time to be with the student all the hour.
14.23	T1	E: Just the teacher can be with the student yeah everything will be ok and the better.
14.33	R*	E: What about education area four? They provide training and lots of different things what do you think that they could do to make life better for English teachers in their school?

14.46	T1	E: I think they could sent the teacher that not graduate in major English to study English such as the teacher for Pratom one two three to study English maybe to **seminar**
15.04	R*	E: So is it would it be that they need to study about the English language or is it they need to study about how to teach English?
15.13	T1	E: Yeah.
15.14	R*	E: Or is it both?
15.15	T1	E: Yeah, cause the student that they sent to me they have no standard.
15.19	R*	E: Okay ok. So what would you think, is it that they these teachers need English language teaching or both? What do you think?
15.29	TT*	T: ในความคิดของเราคิดว่าคุณครูผู้สอนนี้ควรจะไปเรียนเกี่ยวกับภาษาอังกฤษหรือเรียนเกี่ยวกับวิธีการสอนภาษาอังกฤษ หรือว่าทั้งสองวิธี? E: Do you think the teachers should learn about English or learn about how to teach English or both?
15.38	T1	E: I think both it's very important.
15.42	R*	E: What about the training that you have had? Has it been okay? Training that you had from education are four?
15.51	TT*	T: จากการอบรมสัมมนาของทางเขตที่ให้เรามาเนี่ยค่ะที่จัดให้เรามา เราสู้ดีกว่ายัง? มันโอเคกับเราไหม? E: The seminar from the area that has been organize for you, how do you feel? Is it okay with you?
15.59	T1	E: For the seminar I think it's not okay.
16.04	R*	E: What is it that's not right? What can they make better?
16.09	T1	E: Sometime some teacher doesn't go to the seminar they go to another place.
16.16	R*	E: Yeah, that's okay.
16.18	T1	E: Especially me.
16.19	R*	E: Especially you. well it's okay to be self-criticle.
16.24	T1	E: Cause they do just the same thing all
16.27	TT*	E: Always.
16.28	T1	E: Yeah, last year listening this year listening the same thing.
16.34	R*	E: The same training yeah?
16.34	T1	E: Every province yeah.
16.35	R*	E: Ok ok. So it's the same so if they produce the same training then people don't wanna go cause it's boring okay.
16.42	R*	E: What about the CEFR training that they have recently? Is that...
16.46	T1	E: CFR...what is it?
16.48	R*	E: CFR is the common European framework.
16.51	TT*	T: เป็นการสอบครู คัดเลือกสอบครู E: It's a teacher test. Teacher examination.
16.54	R*	E: Teacher took at test.
16.55	TT*	T: เคยได้เข้าร่วมไหมคะ? E: Have you join it?
16.55	T1	E: Ok. Last year I do it.
16.59	R*	T: Keng-Mak(In Thai) E: Very good.
17.01	TT*	E: Maybe I have been sitting in his class.

17.03	R*	E: Yeah, maybe yeah. So you had to sit the test and then later there was training afterwards?
17.08	T1	E: Yeah.
17.08	R*	E: So that training was that any good? Is that useful?
17.12	T1	E: Get **A full** if I not wrong remember.
17.17	R*	E: So would that be fair? Is that fare or not what do you think?
17.22	T1	T: คือมันเรารู้สึกว่ามันยุติธรรมกับเราไหมกับคะแนนที่เราได้แล้วก็รู้สึกยังไง? E: Do you feel that it's fair to you with the score that you've got and how do you feel?
17.26	T1	E: Ohh yeah, it's very fair.
17.27	R*	E: It's fair okay.
17.28	T1	E: Because the test it's so very difficult.
17.33	R*	E: Have you? Had you uhm had you practice the test before you took the test or what?
17.39	T1	E: Ohh No no.
17.39	R*	E: Ohh No no no no.
17.43	R*	E: Okay, maybe if you practice it first it might have helpt, I don't know but yeah I take your point because it's...
17.49	T1	E: The most problem is the listening.
17.52	TT*	E: Listening.
17.52	R*	E: Listening yeah.
17.53	T1	E: In the test they say very fast.
17.57	R*	E: Very fast okay, ahh my students and that seminars they always say I talk to fast but I say it's the same in all the classes exactly the same there's no different but yeah okay well at lease you went to the training***** but okay so that important point making the training seems to be the same thing and that's why people don't bother going is that training and not bother okay that's interesting.
18.23	R*	E: When you look at your learning your teaching style, how would you describe your teaching style? Would you say that you are a learner centered teacher or a teacher centered teacher***** ? How would you describe your style?
18.39	TT*	T: ในสไตล์การสอนของเราเนี่ยคุณครูผู้สอนเนี่ยเอามาจากไหนคะ? เอามาจากช่วงที่ตอนยังเป็นเด็กแล้วคุณครูสอนเราไหมหรือว่าเอามาจากตอนที่เรารู้เรียนตอนเป็นครู? E: Where did you get your style of teaching from? Did you get it when you were a student and your teacher taught you or when you learnt how to be a teacher?
18.52	T1	E: I do it with my sense and sometime I keep it from the seminar such as if they say the words in the different feeling such as say the words crocodile cries they would say crocodile.
19.20	R*	E: Yeah, so they get ***** yeah yeah yeah.
19.23	T1	E: Crocodile.
19.25	R*	E: That's good.
19.26	T1	E: Crocodile ***** they will say crocodile.
19.28	R*	E: Yeah yeah, that's good.
19.31	R*	E: When you look back when you were a student when you were Pratom and Matthayom, Can you remember how your teachers taught you? what style did they have?

19.44	T1	E: When I'm the student?
19.45	R*	E: When you were a student yeah. What style did they have?
19.49	TT*	T: ก็คือเมื่อตอนที่เรายังเป็นเด็กนักเรียนอยู่เนี่ยจำได้ไหมคะว่าคุณครูสอนเรายังไงบ้างคะ? E: When you're a student, can you remember how your teacher taught you?
19.55	T1	E: The teacher just apply on board yeah on white board and I write write write.
20.09	R*	E: Ok. So when you compare styles from teaching today and teaching before, you see yourself as different or the same? Is there anything from the old days that you bring forward to help you today or not?
20.24	T1	E: From the last ***** and now?
20.26	R*	E: Yeah.
20.28	T1	E: I think the teaching now is better because the student have do in the lesson they do it with theirself the teacher just be ***** for them.
20.43	R*	E: Ok. Good.
20.46	R*	E: Is there a problem with students who are not good enough to go to the next level? For example you have Pratom five do you get sometimes a student has difficulties and they have problems to get to Pratom...
20.57	T1	E: Yeah yeah.
20.58	R*	E: What do you do to help them so that they don't fail?
21.03	T1	E: If some student in the low level I will call them to talk with me one by one and...
21.13	T1	T: อธิบายว่าไงครับ? E: How do you say the word explain?
21.15	TT*	E: Explain.
21.15	T1	E: And explain about the reason yeah.
21.18	R*	E: So do you have any students failing? Do you any students that actually stay back?
21.24	TT*	T: มีนักเรียน...ซ้ำชั้นไหมคะ? E: Do you have any students that has to repeat the year again?
21.25	T1	E: Ohh yes.
21.25	R*	E: Yeah?
21.26	T1	E: Maybe about three person.
21.29	R*	E: Ok. So it's a small number. So they have to do the year again do they?
21.33	T1	E: Yeah.
21.33	R*	E: Yeah okay.

Appendix P - Selected Transcription Including Thai for What are Thai Teachers’

Perceptions of Learner-centeredness?

- T1: “That is good. That is good of because the student if you want to teach excuse me. If you want to learn is open their brain, when we teach, when I teach the student is happy. I think they are happy.”
- “For example, today. Sometime I ask student what you want to learn today. If the student can say I have the one two three they say choose one two three, they choose one, OK, I teach this.”
- “คือมันเป็นบางครั้ง ถ้าสมมุติว่าเด็กเนี่ยมันจะมีความแตกต่างกันอยู่ที่ระดับนี่เป็นการทดลองเป็นปีแรกที่เราแบ่งเด็กเป็นสองกลุ่มคือกลุ่มเก่งกับกลุ่มอ่อนแล้วกลุ่มเก่งนี่เค้าจะไปเค้าค่อนข้างที่จะไปได้เร็วอันนี้จะสมบูรณ์ จะสมบูรณ์ได้ ส่วนเด็กอ่อนของผมเวลาที่ผมสอนผมไม่ได้ยึดว่าต้องจดทั้งหมดแต่ผมยึดว่าถ้าเด็กรู้เราก็นำไปถ้าเด็กยังไม่รู้เราก็จะย้ายไปก่อน เมื่อเด็กเค้าเข้าใจค่อยไปแต่ถ้าเด็กที่เค้ายังไม่เก่งกลุ่มอ่อนเนี่ยเค้าจะยังไม่จบครับ”
- “Sometimes. Like if the children are at different levels. This year is the first year, we separated the children into two groups, the clever group and the weak group. The clever group goes fast and are very good and the weak group when I teach them, I don’t concentrate on having it all written down. If they understand then we move on, if they don’t we will repeat it again first. When they understand then we move on, if they don’t, the weak group will not finish.
- “I think 80% they like my style but the student is different someone we had a problem for English this have, they want to listen they don’t want to act don’t like to speak. they want to do when I teach in my activity sometime they act out.”

“If ever see the student have a problem after finish the class, I stay with them. it is English it is a skill English it have listening speaking writing reading, you make this you must do in English and sometime you act out because I want you remember, you act out it help you remember about the English.”

T2: “เด็กที่โรงเรียนยังไม่ได้ถึงเป็นประโยคคะ แคคำศัพท์ เป็นคำศัพท์เพราะว่าเด็กหนึ่งถึงสามสิบก็ยังไม่ได้ ตอนนี้กำลังสอนเกี่ยวกับสระ เด็กจะไม่ได้ศัพท์มากกว่าคะ”

“The children at school still cannot speak in sentences yet. Only just vocabulary because one to ten children still cannot. Right now, I’m teaching about vowels, the children hardly have any vocabulary.”

“มีๆคะ มีสนทนาที่เป็นประโยคคือแบบง่ายๆแต่คือไม่ได้เป็นประโยคที่แบบให้เด็กแต่งประโยคหรืออะไรอย่างเงี้ย แต่ว่าที่เราคุยกัน Good morning อะไรที่เป็นประโยคแนะนำตัวเอง หักทาย สอนเป็นประโยคบ้างแต่ถ้าจะเป็นพวกการทำประโยคจริงๆที่ให้เรียนจริงๆเด็กจะยังไม่ได้”

“Yes. There are easy conversation sentences but not having the children to make up new sentences. But we say, good morning, some greetings, introducing themselves sentences. I do teach sometimes about making new sentences, but to really learn it, the children cannot do it yet.”

“ก็พอดีหนูเองเนี่ยหนูก็ไม่ได้จบสายครูสอนภาษาอังกฤษมา คือทางโรงเรียนเค้าขาดครู ที่นี้หนูจบคอมมา หนูก็ไม่ค่อยถนัดแต่หนูก็ชอบนะจะได้เรียนรู้ไปกับเด็กกว่าเป็นยังไง แต่มีความรู้ในด้านภาษาอังกฤษที่จะให้เด็ก ตรงๆแบบนี้ก็ไม่เกินความสามารถเท่าไร”

“Well, I didn’t exactly graduate from being an English teacher, but the school has a lack of teachers to teach English. I graduated IT and I’m not

good at it but I like it, I get to learn with the children but the knowledge about English to give for the children to be honest it's not more than my ability."

T3: "Not, not, not. I don't have any special way. It depends on the lesson.

"It depends on the student."

"I try to make them understand for the main of the lesson."

Researcher: "What does it mean to you?"

T3: "Does mean focus on the students what they want to know."

Researcher: "Do you see yourself as a learner-centered teacher?"

T3: "Sometimes."

"I.. last time about the class Matthayom three [Grade 9] we learn about dance, I asked them last time we talk about musical instruments and what do you want to know next? They want to know about dance. OK. Next time we study about dance."

Researcher: "What sort of problems do you have?"

T3: "Problems they, most of them don't understand but I try a lot. Sometimes they talk in class. Most of them cannot read in English."

Researcher: "Can they read in Thai?"

T3: "Yes. Cannot."

Researcher: "They can, or they cannot?"

T3: "Cannot."

T4: "ก็คือเหมือนถ้าอยู่ที่โรงเรียนเนี่ยมันก็จะมิกิจกรรมก็คือทุกๆไปอะนะจะเป็นตอนเช้าก็คือให้เค้ากล้าแสดงออกให้เค้าทำ บางครั้งคือเราไม่ต้องบอกคือเค้าจะรู้หน้าที่แล้วเค้าก็จะทำของเค้าเองแล้วเค้ารู้ในะ เวลา ก่อนเข้าเรียนอย่างเงี่ยวันนั้นก็ตกใจอยู่ เอ้าทำไม

ที่เคยทำก็คือเคยบอก เคยนั้นกัน พออย่างนี้ทำไมไม่บอกอย่างงี้หนา ก็คือบางครั้งครูก็แอบตกใจทำไมไม่พูดอะไรอย่างเนี้ยแหละคะ”

“Well if at school, there are normal activities in the morning for them to express themselves. Sometimes I don’t have to tell them to do it they already know their jobs and they will do it by themselves and they know. Before class like that day [The day of the observation when the students were not very forthcoming with their speaking], I was shocked. Normally what I used to do was to speak to them and they have already done it. Sometimes it shocks me as to why they don’t say anything.”

“When I come here, I know the problems of the student at this school. I taught them with the basics in English A-B-C, capital letters small letters, they don’t know about the capital letter and small letter English so ...”

”ก็สอนเกี่ยวกับสระก่อนนะคะคือสอน A-B-C-A”

“Teach about vowels first, teach A-B-C-A.”

Interpreter: “Teach about alphabet first.”

T4: “They remember A to Z already.”

”แล้วทีนี้ก็บอก A-E-I-O-U is a ...”

“And then A-E-I-O-U is a ...”

Interpreter: “The vowels.”

T4: “ละก็ B-C-D-F-G แทนตรงเนี้ยใหม่ ก็คือเริ่มใหม่หมดเลย”

“And B-C-D-F-G instead. We’ll start all over.”

Researcher: “Ok. So what if their, if you’re having to go back to basics what about the curriculum? Ok. So, you have a problem of having to go back to basics and you have the problem of Prathom Three and Prathom Four together, [this teacher has Grades Three and Grades Four together in the same class]

OK, so in the way that's two curriculums alright? So, what ... how can you do the curriculum in a year? Can you do that?"

T4: "ก็คือหลักสูตรใช่ไหมคะ? ก็คือมัน..."

"The curriculum right? Well it's..."

"I think it's different."

"คือมันต่างกันอยู่แล้ว"

"Well it's already different."

"For student in Pratom three and four it's various content."

"ก็พยายามที่จะบูรณาการ คือพยายามที่จะหากรอบที่มันใกล้เคียงอะคะ เวลาเราเอา

ใบงานหรือใบความรู้อะไรมาเนี่ยก็พยายามที่จะหาให้มันได้ใช้แบบใกล้เคียงกันไม่

ต่างกันแล้วเวลาสอนคือเราใช้ชั่วโมงเดียวกันเลยคะสอนเค้าอย่างเนี่ยละคะ ก็คือถ้าจะ

ไปเน้นแบบตามหลักสูตรอะไรมาอย่างงั้นมันคงใช้กับเด็กของเราคือมันยังไม่ถึงขนาด

นั้นแหละคะ มันยังไม่เอ็กซ์เพิร์ตขนาดนั้นเนาะ พยายามที่จะแบบหาใบความรู้หาใบงาน

อะไรที่มันเข้ากับระดับของเค้าอยู่แล้วคะ"

"I'm trying to integration it trying to comprehensive which is similar to.

When we get the work sheets learning sheets we try to look for what we can use that is similar to each other not different and when we teach we teach in the same hour. If we emphasize that much on the curriculum we can't use it with our children yet, they're not that expert. We look out for the work sheets learning sheets that fit with their level."

Researcher: "Ok. So if you can't fit it in, how much can you fit in as a percentage? [The curriculum] What do you think you can fit in?"

T4: "สักเจ็ดสิบเปอร์เซ็นต์"

"About seventy percent."

- T5: "เด็กเป็นศูนย์กลาง ถ้าจะให้เด็กอยากทำอะไรตามที่ตัวเองทำเนี่ยคงไม่ได้ต้องกำหนดจุดมุ่งหมายให้เด็ก จุดประสงค์การเรียนรู้ลงไปก่อนให้เด็กทำตามนี้ ถ้าจะให้เด็กเรียนไปเองอย่างเงี้ยคงไม่ได้ เราต้องกำหนดจุดมุ่งหมายละก็นักเรียนไปตรงนั้น กำหนดก่อนดีกว่า เพราะว่าถ้าจะให้เด็กยึดเด็กเป็นศูนย์กลางนี่คือถ้าให้เด็กนั้นเองเนี่ยไม่ได้ หรือเราต้องนำเค้าต้องพาเค้าไป"
- "Student centered, if we let the children to do whatever they want to do, that can't be happening. We have to set a purpose for them, purpose of learning first and let the children follow. If letting the children learn by themselves, that cannot be done. We have to lead them to the purpose of learning first, because we can't maintain student centered, we have to lead them."
- Interpreter: "ก็คือนักเรียนไม่รู้ว่าจะต้องทำยังไง"
- "So, the students don't know what to do."
- T5: "โอ"
- "Yes."
- "มองเห็นอะ ไม่นะคะ ถ้าจะบอกว่าจุดประสงค์ที่เราลงไปสอนให้เด็กเข้าใจให้สามารถทำแบบฝึกหัดที่เราให้ได้ก็ถือว่าเด็กโอเคแล้วตรงนี้มองเห็น เอออย่างน้อยก็เข้าใจว่าจะทำยังไงว่าเข้าใจไหม"
- "Can see? No. If the purpose is that we teach the children to understand and can do their exercises, then we can assume the children are okay and we see that at least they understand how to do it."
- "มีคะมี มีอยู่แต่ละชั่วโมงก็มีปัญหาแตกต่างกันไปคะ อย่างเช่นถ้าเด็กเดี๋ยวนี้นะเนี่ยจะไม่ค่อยมีความรับผิดชอบคือให้การบ้านไปเค้าจะไม่ทำอยู่ที่บ้านแต่เค้าจะ take here and แล้วมาทำในชั่วโมงเราก็ต้องให้ออกาสเด็กทำ เอากลับไปทำที่บ้านนี่ไม่ทำหรือประมาณนี้"

“Yes there is. Each hour there are problems, for example now the children don’t have any responsibility. When we give them homework to do, they won’t do it at home. They will take it here and come and do it in class and we have to give them the chance to do it. They won’t do their homework at home.”

- T6: “For me, I think we have to make the student not be serious and do everything for them to be happy funny maybe funny, when they study with me they will laugh all.”
- “I think student centered and both student centered before we teach them we have to...how to explain.”
- “After then let them to think about what I say what let them do let them think themselves.”
- “May be with just ahh mind map about the topic for the vocabulary that has animals family member yeah let they do let them make mind map for themselves.”
- “When I give the vocabulary give them to remember cause in every lesson they will get about ten or eight word to them for them to remember and use in the lesson.”

- T7: “ส่วนใหญ่แล้วอยู่นี้นะคะจะคือถามว่ามันมีท้อปิคในแต่ละหัวข้อของตัวเองที่จะตั้งไว้ อยู่แล้วว่าจะสอนเด็กเกี่ยวกับขงนี้ละก็ส่วนใหญ่แล้วเด็กตามบ้านนอกเนี่ยจะไม่รู้ศัพท์ ที่นี้เราพยายามที่จะให้เรียนรู้มากที่สุดก็คือเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ในแต่ละหมวดหมู่ให้ครบ เพื่อที่จะโยงไปในส่วนของแกรมมาให้ได้แต่ในส่วนของแกรมมานี้จะไม่ค่อยได้สอน ยอมรับเลยว่าไม่ค่อยได้สอนเพราะว่าเด็กยังไม่รู้ศัพท์คะ แต่ว่าจะมีแต่เตรียมหัวข้อ ทุกหัวข้อไว้ว่าวันนี้จะสอนหัวข้อนี้แล้วให้เด็กได้คำศัพท์ในหัวข้อนี้คะ”

“Mostly, if you are asking: Is there an objective in each topic? Yes.

There’re already set as to what we’re going to teach the children, but mostly the children are from the countryside and don’t know about vocabulary. So, we try to make them learn the most which is by learning all the categories of vocabulary in order to link it to grammar. But I admit that I don’t teach grammar much because the children don’t know the vocabulary, but I prepare each and every topic to teach them and let them know the vocabulary of this topic.”

“อ้อค่ะ แต่ละวันเนี่ยที่เราที่เราเรียนภาษาอังกฤษในแต่ละห้องอยู่แล้วที่นี้จะมีคาบพิเศษอีกต่างหาก จันทร์ พุธ ศุกร์ ก็คือวันนี้หัวข้อนี้ใช้หัวข้อนี้แล้วก็ เด็กก็จะมาเรียนรู้ตอนแรกก่อนก็คือเด็กเรียนรู้คำศัพท์กันก่อนเสร็จแล้วเด็กก็จะเอาสิ่งที่เป็นที่อุปโลกของวันนี้เค้าก็จะไปสามารถไปศึกษาเรียนรู้ด้วยตัวเองไม่ว่าจะเป็นอินเทอร์เน็ตก็คือเราก็สามารถให้เค้าค้นหาได้ นี่ก็คือเด็กสามารถไปอ่านละก็ดิคเชอเนอรี่ก็คือดิค เด็กก็เป็นศูนย์กลางคือเด็กสามารถเรียนรู้ด้วยตัวเองโดยที่เราไม่ได้ป้อนทั้งหมดว่าคำนี้หมายถึงอะไรแต่เด็กจะต้องไปหาสิ่งเหล่านี้ละก็ทำงานกลุ่มร่วมกัน”

“Okay, each day we normally learn English in different classes and then there’s another special class separately on Monday, Wednesday and Friday. Today’s topic and the children will learn the first part first. They will learn about the vocabulary first and then they will get the topic of the day to go and study and learn by themselves on the internet. We can let them search and they can read and also use a dictionary. Student-centered learning is where they can learn by themselves, we don’t have to feed them everything. What does this word mean? But they have to look it up by themselves and work together in groups.”

“ค่ะ โดยที่มีคุณครูคอยดูแลแต่เราไม่ได้สอนทุกอย่างให้เค้าศึกษาเองค่ะ”

“Yes. With the teacher watching, but we don’t teach them everything, we let them study by themselves.”

“จันทร์ พุธ ศุกร์ค่ะ”

“Monday, Wednesday, Friday.”

“ปัญหาของเด็กๆเนี่ยเนะคะก็จะเป็นระหว่างคือแบบมันรวมหมด”

“The students’ problems are that they are all together.”

“All student in the school, the problem is the Prathom One, Prathom Two, Prathom Three, they do not know the words.

“ไม่รู้คำศัพท์แล้วที่นั่นมันก็จะเ็นเอ่อเหนื่อยของพี่ๆแล้วก็ทำให้แบบว่าถ่วงเวลาพี่ๆแล้ว

พี่ๆก็จะแบบหงุดหงิดรำคาญน้องอย่างเงี้ยคะ แต่คือเจตนาของครูเนี่ยอยากจะให้พี่

ช่วยดูน้องอีกทีก็คือสอนน้องอีกทีหนึ่งแต่เป็นว่าพี่จะใจร้อนละก็บางที่น้องช้าก็จะ

หงุดหงิด เมื่อพี่โกรธน้องอย่างเงี้ยน้องก็จะไม่ยอมเรียนแต่เราก็คือคอยกำกับเนี่ยคะ นี่

คือปัญหา”

“Not knowing the vocabulary, it makes the older class exhausted and also confuses them and they will be irritated and annoyed by the younger ones.

But the intention of the teachers, is that they want the older ones to help the younger ones and teach them again but the older ones turn out to be

impatient and sometimes the younger students are slower than the older

students who get irritated and when they get angry of the younger ones, the

younger ones don’t want to come and learn. But we are always control it.

These are the problems.”

“ปัญหาอีกอย่างหนึ่งก็คือทั้งโรงเรียนเนี่ยคะ ครูภาษาอังกฤษก็คือจะมีอยู่คนเดียวแล้วที่

นี้บางทีได้กระหว่างป.หนึ่งถึงป.สี่ที่ไม่ได้เรียนกับคุณครูหะคะแทบจะไม่ได้เรียน

ภาษาอังกฤษเลยแล้วมาเริ่มอีกทีก็คือตอนมาเรียนป.ห้า ป.หก คือเด็กก็จะเป็นแบบ
“ไม่ได้เรียนรู้มันก็เลยเป็นเหมือนซ้ำคะเมื่อเทียบกับโรงเรียนอื่นๆเพราะคุณครูน้อย”

“Another problem is that in the whole school, there’s only one English teacher and sometimes the Prathom One to Prathom Four [Grade One to Grade Four] children don’t get to learn with the teacher. They barely learn any English and then they start learning in Prathom Five and Prathom Six [Grade Five and Grade Six]. They don’t get to learn so they look backward if you compare them with other schools because there are less teachers.”

“ใช้สไตส์ตั้งแต่ตอนเป็นเด็กเอาความที่เราเป็นเด็กแล้วเราจะรู้ว่าคุณที่จะเรียน

ภาษาอังกฤษได้เนี่ยมันจะต้องเป็นแบบไหน? ตอนเป็นเด็กจะเป็นคนชอบท่องศัพท์คะ จะชอบท่องศัพท์ถ้าคุณครูให้เนี่ยก็จะท่องเป็นคนแรกแล้วก็เวลาโตมาสอนเด็กจะย้ำตลอดว่าถ้าคุณไม่ได้คำศัพท์ก็คือไม่สามารถที่จะไปต่อได้เพราะถ้าไม่รู้ศัพท์ก็จะอาศัยว่าจะย้ำบ่อยๆว่าเนี่ย ตอนครูเป็นเด็กนะครูจะท่องศัพท์บ่อยมาก กว่าที่จะถึงขนาดถือว่าท่องศัพท์บ่อยครูยังได้แค่นี้อะไรประมาณเนี่ยคะแล้วถ้านักเรียนไม่ท่องเลยเพราะว่าเด็กทุกวันนี้จะไม่ค่อยท่องศัพท์ ติดเกมส์ เล่นเกมส์ แล้วก็บอกท่องศัพท์ยากมากดังนั้นก็จะพยายามบอกให้ท่องศัพท์เนี่ยก็คือเอาประสบการณ์ตั้งแต่ตอนที่ตัวเองเป็นเด็กเนี่ย มาคิดว่าถ้าเด็กวัยเนี่ยละก็ช่วงวัยเนี่ยมันควรที่จะต้องเรียนรู้คำศัพท์ก่อนแล้วมันถึงจะพัฒนาไปในด้านของแกรมม่าหรือว่าอะไรต่างๆนานาได้ นี่คือหัวใจสำคัญของภาษาอังกฤษเพราะว่าถ้าเราไม่รู้ศัพท์เราก็ไปไม่ได้ใช่ไหมคะ? มันก็หลายอย่างเลยเอามาปรับใช้กับเด็กนักเรียนคะ”

“I use the style when I was a kid and I will know how people can learn English? When I was a kid I liked to memorize vocabulary if the teacher let us, then I would be the first person to do it and when I grew up I always taught the students that if you don’t know the vocabulary, then you won’t be able to go further because I always repeat that when I was a kid, I

memorised the vocabulary a lot. Even though I memorized it a lot, I still can get this and children these days don't memorise vocabulary. They're addicted to games, playing games and say it's very difficult. So, I try to tell them to memorise the vocabulary. I use my experience when I was a kid and think to myself, if this age, this time they should learn the vocabulary first, then develop to grammar or other things. This is the main heart of English because if we don't know any of the vocabulary then we can't go further right? There're lots of things there we can use to adapt for the students.

T8: "Translation the most and PPP lesson plan."

"The way I think the way I learn English because the way I learn I learn as my natural that I have a basic, basic practice them."

"Teacher centered last thirty years ago, ok at grammar."

"From my study MA TESOL."

"Yeah."

"First of all, first of all, when we come to the class ok? They need to practice speaking first and then I give them the time when practice with the material in the computer they can learn well and they have tablet they do these program well."

"Many problems because they don't have the family about their family the family some they live with grandmother grandfather or some live with father and mother, some parents they don't know any English they don't have time to teach their children to learn so they cannot develop themselves quickly."

"We have ok in the morning we have student to show the word or vocabulary to practice in on Friday Monday and Friday something like that

and they can practice speaking and when they meet the teacher ok they speak English.”

“Movie movie? I teach them in my free time a song in English, they can sing song and learn from music or cartoon something like that.”

“Yes. They allow me to teach any way that I yeah any way with just can [not heard] and give feed-back.”

T9: “คือตัวเองไปอบรมการสอนมุ่งประสบการณ์ทางภาษามาคะแล้วที่นี้นำมาใช้ให้เด็กจำเหมือนกับ [not heard]”

“I have been to teaching language experience training and I use it for the children to memorize like [not heard]”

Interpreter: “She say that she have been to the training to straight on how student can remember and use it lot other things.”

“อาจารย์สตีฟอยากจะให้ยกตัวอย่างตอนที่เรสอนเนี่ยเรสอนแบบไหน?”

“Ajarn [teacher] Steve wants you to give an example when and how you teach?”

T9: “ส่วนใหญ่เราก็ใช้วิดีโอในการช่วยช่วยในการจำจำเป็นประโยคละก็ออกเสียงแล้วจะมีหนังสือที่ทำเป็นหนังสือกลอเรียใช้ปากกาจิ้มคำอะคะแล้วก็ดูหนังสือแล้วก็ปากกาคะคือเวลาที่ทำเนี่ยเราออกเสียงไม่ชัดเรามาใช้”

“Mostly using videos to help with remembering sentences and pronunciation and there’re also Gloria books that we use a pen to press the words. I can’t pronounce it correctly so I have to use it”

Interpreter: “She say usually their have the video and text book and she have Gloria book to use the pencil you can’t pronounce correctly you can push on the

words because she say, I'm not a native speaker, I'm not sure how to pronounce."

T9: "คิดว่าเราสอนหลายอย่าง หลายวิชาบ้างการเตรียมตัวก็ต้องเตรียมหลายวิชา"

"I think I teach a lot of things and a lot of subjects, to prepare have to prepare lots of subjects."

"บางทีเราก็มีกิจกรรมเข้ามาเยอะ"

"Sometimes there're a lot of activities coming in."

Interpreter: "The problem she have that because she have a lot of subject she teach all the subject not just English and sometime she have other work to do too like the paper work and if more than that their have other activities extra activities come to school that is the problem."

"ก็คือถือว่าเด็กนักเรียนนี้เป็นหลักใช่ไหมคะ?"

"So the children are the priority right?"

T9: "ค่ะ"

"Yes."

T10: "I teach them three P [PPP]"

Researcher: "Three Ps yeah? OK. Why do you choose three Ps?"

T10: "Because Dr. Ying teach me."

"And she give the technique to how to teach student."

Researcher: "Okay. So would you say that you are a learner-centered teacher? Do you describe yourself as a learner-centered teacher?"

T10: "No."

"I told the student every time when I before I teach them ahh what do you want to learn? What topic do you want?"

"คะ ก็เวลาสอนเค้าเนาะก็จะถามเค้าไว้แล้วว่าจะเรียนเรื่องอะไรก่อน? จะเรียนอะไร? จะถามก่อนที่จะถึงชั่วโมงเรียนหนึ่งชั่วโมง ถ้าชั่วโมงต่อไปจะเรียนอะไรแล้วก็เราจะมีข้อสงสัยให้เค้าให้เค้าคิดเป็นข้อสงสัย เค้าก็จะเลือกมาแล้วเอาเรื่องที่เด็กเลือกมากที่สุดคะ พอเลือกเสร็จปั๊บมาเค้าก็จะเตรียมของเค้ามาแล้วว่าครูจะสอนเรื่องแฟมิลีอย่างไร เค้าจะเตรียมมาแล้วเค้าจะไปหา พอหาเสร็จปั๊บเค้าก็จะให้มีคำถามมาถ้าจะถามเรื่องเนี่ยจะถามว่าอะไร จะพูดอย่างไรคะ"

"Yes, when I teach them I ask them what do you want to learn first? What do you want to learn? I will ask before the class starts one hour and what do you want to learn in the next hour there're choices for them I let them choose when they finish choosing then I'll pick the most choose choice and then they will prepare what we're going to learn. If I'm going to teach about family then they will go find and then they will ask questions how to ask this? How to say this?"

Interpreter: "แล้วมันเรามีปัญหาเวลาเรียนในเรื่องการสอนเด็ก?"

"And do you have problems when you're teaching the children?"

T10: "Some student don't think."

"ไม่คิดอะไรเลย"

"Don't think at all."

"Don't have the idea for question or ask question."

Researcher: "What sort? What can you do to help them?"

T10: "กระตุ้นเค้าคะ"

"Motivate them."

"กระตุ้นให้เค้าถามแล้วก็นำคำถามให้เค้าแล้วเราก็จะ [not heard]"

"Motivate them to ask and take their question and I will [not heard]"

Appendix Q - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Do Thai Students and Teachers Lack Confidence?

T1: “Yes, I do agree. Because the cultural of Thailand is, ..make the Thai people is shy I think.”

Researcher: “Can you give me an aspect of Thai culture? What is it about Thai culture that makes people shy?”

T1: “Example when the young people in the opinion of the young people who when they say, the young people believe the elder people.

Researcher: “Now if I ask a question concerning that, do the younger people really believe or do they follow? Do they believe Jing-Jing (believe in Thai), do they believe one-hundred percent or do they follow what the elder people say?

T1: “Sometimes, but now I think it’s about eighty percent.

Researcher: “Eighty percent believe or follow?”

T1: “Yeah.”

Researcher: “Believe yeah?”

T1: “Yes.”

“It’s in my village and in my family like this but I don’t know at the big city and I’m not sure.”

Interpreter: “คุณครูทั่วไปที่สอนภาษาอังกฤษเนี่ยในความคิดเห็นของอาจารย์ตี๋มเนี่ยคิดว่าครูผู้สอนภาษาอังกฤษขาดความมั่นใจไหม?”

“In general teachers that teach English in your opinion Ajarn Thim, do you think the teachers lack confidence?”

T1: “If the English teacher if they study about the English and they teach English for student I think they are confident then confident but if they

don't study English don't like English but they teach I think they not too confident."

- T2: "ใช่ค่ะ เด็กไม่กล้าแสดงออกเพราะว่าเค้ากลัวเพื่อนในห้องล้อหรืออะไรที่เค้าไม่มั่นใจอะ
ไม่มีความมั่นใจเวลาพูดภาษาอังกฤษเค้าก็เลยไม่กล้าที่จะแสดงออก"
- "Yes. The children are not assertive because they're afraid their friends would make fun of them or with something they're not confident with. They don't have confidence to speak English so they're not assertive.
- "ใช่ค่ะ รู้สึกไม่มั่นใจในการที่จะออกเสียงรู้คำศัพท์คำนี้ซึ่งเราก็นั่นเองอะสอนก็ก็คือไม่ได้จบภาษาอังกฤษมาที่เรียนมาก็แค่วิชาเสริมก็พอรู้แล้วคร่าวๆไม่ได้เรียนแบบลงลึกซึ่งการสอนเนี่ยมันต้องแบบลึกๆหน่อย เช่น การออกเสียง คำนี้คำแปลว่าอะไร ซึ่งเรารู้แค่คำศัพท์ที่แบบทั่วไปแต่ถ้าเรามาสอนเนี่ยเราต้องรู้คำศัพท์ในนั้นซึ่งตัวหนุเองก็เวลาสอนก็ต้องเปิดดิกชันนารีอยู่เรื่อยๆเหมือนกันก็ไม่น่าจะเวลาสอนแต่ถ้าเป็นวิชาของตัวเองนี่คือมั่นใจซึ่งเทียบได้ว่าตัวเองก็ไม่น่าจะมั่นใจ"
- "Yes. I feel that I don't have confidence to pronounce or the vocabulary which I didn't graduate English what I've learnt is just extra and I do know approximant but not deep, which teaching English has to be deep for example pronunciation what is the meaning of this word which I only know just the general vocabulary but if we teach we have to know the vocabularies in there which I use my time teaching by opening the dictionary all the time too I'm not confident when I'm teaching but if it's my own subject I do have confidence which I can compare myself."

Interpreter: "ถ้าสอนในวิชาที่เราเรียนมาเนี่ยรู้สึกยังไง?"

"If you get to teach what you've study, how would you feel?"

T2: "รู้สึกมั่นใจค่ะคือเราสอนเวลาคำพูดคือมันก็จะออกมาจากสมองเราเลยคือพูดออกมาๆ
เลยคะแล้วภาษาอังกฤษเนี่ยคือจะพูดแต่ละคำก็ต้องดูว่าคือไม่มั่นใจแต่ละคำที่จะพูดอะ
ค่ะ"

"Feel confidence. When I teach the words just comes out from my brain I
can keep speaking and speaking but English I have to keep looking it up
because I'm not confident in each word to say."

Interpreter: "If she teach about technology IT she just automatic come to her head that
this word what I'm going to say that what about the balance of the voice
strong than English because when she teach English she need to think, does
it correct or not, it so different.

"ถ้าเป็นเกี่ยวกับดนตรีล่ะคะ?"

"How about the music?"

T2: "ดนตรีนี่พอจะมั่นใจกว่าภาษาอังกฤษหน่อย ยังพอรู้ๆ"

"I'm more confident in music than English I still know enough."

T3: "They don't shy but they don't have the confident in themselves to speak
English."

Researcher: "What about Thai teachers of English?"

T3: "The same. The same as children."

"If they have more confident in themselves they can speak English."

Researcher: "Why do you think that students and teachers lack confidence?"

T3: "Because I think that they don't have a chance to use English in their daily
life they only use with teachers only in English class."

Researcher: "So they can't use with mom and dad, things like that?"

T3: "They can't use in their daily life such as when they go back to home their
parent cannot speak English."

- Researcher: “And what about teachers?”
- T3: “Same.”
- Researcher: “Same yeah, so really the teachers are only using English in the classroom they’re not using it outside?”
- T3: “Some of them some, many most of them don’t use English in class but they have their knowledge about English.”
- T4: “Sometime I agree with for this questions because some students from this class Pratom three and Pratom four quite shy when they used to speak English language, I know that speaking English that’s very important for the communications with other people in Thailand and in ASEAN so it’s open ASEAN community and I try to find the facilities to support them to confidence their selves to communicated in English language. Ok that I told you before I try to find the CDs the some new information from the YouTube and some many many many way I try to find to develop them for the supervisor that he sent the effective letter for our student in UD area four, OK for, for a long time yeah.”
- Researcher: “What about Thai teachers of English, do you think that they lack confidence?”
- T4: “Some teacher if their graduated from English language they’re to speak in English more some teacher, ..they do great in English, ..but some people doesn’t graduated English language they confident themselves to speak English more than English teacher from graduated English language. Sometime I think I’m shy to speak in English with the foreigners especially from the foreigner from German, I can’t to understand when they speak in English. Yeah, I told them to speak slowly please or pardon? Okay to understand for that they speak with me.”

- Researcher: “Is it their accent that makes it difficult? What is it that makes it difficult?”
- T4: “The pronunciations the sound that I don’t understand some words.”
- Researcher: “Yeah, I think it’s the accent, yeah.”
- T4: “Yes, yes. Accent yes.”
- Researcher: “What about when you’re speaking when you’re using English in the classroom? Are you confident or not when you’re in classroom with your students?”
- T4: “I think I’m confident to translated English to Thai for our student on the first time when I coming to this classroom I try to speak in English with them to greetings them, Hello, how are you? and sometime I try them to acting English language up to the head subject the head that I thought them for this time.”
- T5: “คิดว่าเด็กอายุที่จะพูดภาษาอังกฤษ”
- “Think that the children are shy to speak English.”
- “ตอนแรกเห็นด้วย เห็นด้วยนะคะเห็นด้วย เห็นด้วยอยู่แต่ถ้าเด็กได้เรียนรู้ได้ฝึกเด็กจะกล้ามากขึ้นคะ เช่น วันนั้นรอนัลมาสอนภาษาอังกฤษสิบวันเด็กกล้าพูดนะเด็กกล้าพูดขึ้นละก็...”
- “First I agree, I do agree but if the children get to learn and practice they will have more courage for example Ronald came to teach English for ten days the children had the courage to speak courage to speak more and...”
- “Talk about English say hello say hi to Ronald, Ronald come here to teach English in summer with confident to speak English to him yeah very good.”
- T6: “Some student. Just some not all.”

- Researcher: “What about Thai teachers of English? Okay first of all think about yourself think about all Thai teachers of English, Do the Thai teachers lack confidence?”
- T6: “For Thai teachers I think most of Thai teachers they have many lot of student make the student to be afraid and unable to do their ability to do it. We have to give them a chance to show their feeling.”
- Researcher: “So teachers need to give maybe more freedom to the students so that they can be confident yeah? OK.”
- T6: “Yeah.”
- T7: “อันนี้หนูเห็นด้วยค่ะ เพราะว่าหนึ่งขนาดที่ว่าไม่ใช่แต่นักเรียน คนที่โตขาดความมั่นใจ เพราะว่าเราไม่รู้ภาษาไม่รู้คำศัพท์ก็คือเกิดความมั่นใจใหม่ว่าเราจะพูดถูกไหมผิดรีเปล่า? อย่างเงี้ยคะมันเลยเกิดความประหม่าเหมือนเราไม่รู้อะไรสักอย่างแล้วก็ไม่กล้าที่จะแสดงออกมา”
- “This I do agree with because One even just not the students but older people do lack confidence because we don’t know the language don’t know the vocabulary don’t have the confident on am I saying it right or wrong? And so it gets nervous it’s like we don’t know anything and not assertive it out.”
- Interpreter: “She said she agree about students Thai students lack confidence and not just children but the adult people same their not have a chance to learn and speak English.”
- Researcher: “What about Thai teachers of English? Do they lack confidence as well as the students?”

- T7: “ก็เหมือนกันคุณครูไม่แต่ว่าครูที่จบเอกภาษาอังกฤษ ครูคือในโรงเรียนประถมเนี่ย ขนาดเล็กเนี่ยครูที่ไม่ได้จบเอกภาษาอังกฤษก็ต้องได้สอนภาษาอังกฤษ บางคนก็ไม่ใช่ไม่รู้ก็สอน ไม่รู้ว่าตัวเองจะสอนถูกไหม? ก็ไม่มีความมั่นใจมีเยอะค่ะ”
- “The same, not just the teacher who graduated in English major. The teachers in Pratom school small school the teacher who didn’t graduate English major has to teach English some don’t know still get to teach and not knowing that am I teaching it correctly? There’re a lot that are Lack confidence.”
- T8: “Yeah, I agree because they don’t have opportunity to speak out with the native speaker this is the first they don’t have opportunity to speak up make them lack of confident.”
- Researcher: “You say the native speakers, what about, obviously if there aren’t native speakers, what about with Thai people?”
- T8: “With Thai people it’s the same when they meet the strangers or the one they don’t know each other with the teacher sometime they just only smile they don’t talk anything but with their friend or anything they teacher just only listen what they are talking about. They lack of confident.”
- Researcher: “What about Thai teachers of English? Thinking about in general do you think Thai teachers of English lack confidence in teaching?”
- T8: “I think too, for me only cause for me I teach Pratom one to Pratom six I don’t have opportunity to speak English too so sometime I feel shy I don’t have any vocabulary to speak out.”
- Researcher: “Not enough vocabulary yeah?”
- T8: “Vocabulary or some conversation.”

Researcher: “What problems do your students have when they are in the classroom you are being learner centered as a teacher, what problems do the students have?”

T8: “They so shy and cannot speak out well and they pronunciation not as the same as the foreigner or native speaker because of Thai teacher, we need to practice from the computer.”

T9: “I think most people be shy.”

Researcher: “Is it shy or lacking confidence? What do you mean by shy?”

Interpreter: “อายที่จะพูดหรือว่าไม่มีความกล้าคือมันไม่เชื่อมั่นในตัวเองเข้าใจไหมครู?”

“Shy to speak or not having courage which is no confidence in themselves, do you understand?”

T9: [Not heard]

Interpreter: “Less confidence.”

Researcher: “Lack confidence. With some teachers, I talked about it and I said they’re not shy look at them they’re sort of active and everything but they lack confidence.”

“What about Thai teachers of English in your opinion? Do Thai teachers, do they lack confidence at all when they’re teaching English in their classroom?”

Interpreter: “ถ้าเป็นในกลุ่มของคุณครูผู้สอนล่ะคะ?”

“How about the group of teachers?”

T9: “Lack confidence too.”

T10: "ก็เห็นด้วยอะค่ะ เพราะว่าคือเด็กทุกคนก็บางคนก็อาย อายนี่ก็คือนิสัยส่วนตัวของเค้า แต่ในอีกกลุ่มนึงหนะเค้าก็ไม่ได้อายแต่เค้าไม่รู้ว่าการที่เราจะพูดแบบเนี้ยเค้าจะพูด ยังไง ก็คือขาดความมั่นใจ [not heard]"

"I do agree because every students some are shy this shy is their personal habits but another group aren't shy they just don't know how to speak want they want to say which is lack confidence [not heard].

Interpreter: "She said that some student shy to speak English and other group of students they're not shy but their don't know how to speak how to use the word what they're going to say but she agree with student their not have confidence to speak English."

Researcher: "Okay. So, let's change this slightly, What about teachers Thai teachers of English? Do they lack confidence? Not saying about you, you can talk about yourself, I'm looking in general and also about yourself."

Interpreter: "คือถ้ามองภาพรวมแล้ว ครูไทยเนี้ยเราคิดว่าครูไทยเป็นแบบไหนเค้าขาดความมั่นใจที่จะพูดภาษาอังกฤษไหม?"

"If looking the whole image Thai teachers which do you think they are? Do they lack confidence to speak English?"

T10: "สำหรับครูไทยเนี้ย สำหรับดิฉันคิดว่าไม่ขาดความมั่นใจหรอกค่ะ คือเค้าอยากจะทำพูด แต่ว่าหลักการพูดหนะเค้าก็จะพูดยังไม่ถูกแต่เค้าก็พูดไทยมันก็เลยกลายเป็นเรื่องที่ว่า สนุกขันขำที่นี้จะให้มาจริงจังจังมั้งที่จะพูดมันก็เลยขาดความจริงจังที่จะพูดไป ความ ผิดพลาดมันก็เลยเยอะขึ้นค่ะแต่ครูไม่ได้อายค่ะ"

"For Thai teachers for me I think they're not lack confidence, they want to speak but the principle to speak they do speak it but not correctly so they speak Thai and it turns out to be a funny subject and when to get serious for

speaking they just lose the seriousness and then lots of mistakes but the teachers aren't shy."

Appendix R - Observation Grids for Emergent Themes

Composite Teachers:	Teacher Centered		Lower Level Transition		No Evidence		Higher Level Transition		Learner Centered	
The Function of Content	1	2	1	3	1		1	5	1	2
	2	2	2	1	2		2	5	2	
	3	2	3	5	3	2	3	1	3	
	4		4	1	4	9	4		4	
The Role of the Teacher	1	2	1	2	1		1	4	1	2
	2	1	2	3	2	2	2	3	2	
	3	2	3	1	3	1	3	6	3	
	4	2	4	1	4		4	5	4	
	5		5	1	5	8	5	1	5	
	6	1	6	2	6	5	6	1	6	
The Responsibility for Learning	1	8	1		1	1	1	1	1	
	2	1	2	1	2	8	2		2	
	3	1	3	2	3	7	3		3	
	4	1	4	2	4	5	4	2	4	
	5	1	5	2	5	5	5	2	5	
	6	1	6	1	6	8	6		6	
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	1	3	1		1		1	5	1	2
	2	2	2	1	2		2	5	2	
	3		3	5	3	3	3	2	3	
	4	1	4		4	7	4	1	4	
	5	2	5	3	5	4	5		5	
	6	4	6	3	6	1	6	1	6	
	7	3	7	2	7		7	4	7	
The Balance of Power	1	10	1		1		1		1	
	2	2	2	1	2	6	2	1	2	
	3	1	3		3	9	3		3	
	4		4		4	10	4		4	
	5		5	1	5	9	5		5	
	6		6	2	6	8	6		6	
Totals	29	55		46		118		55		16

Adapted from Blumberg (2009)

Teacher: 1 Time:	Teacher Centered	Lower Level Transition	No Evidence	Higher Level Transition	Learner Centered
The Function of Content	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4√	1 2 3 4	1√ 2 3√ 4	1 2√ 3 4
The Role of the Teacher	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3√ 4 5√ 6√	1√ 2 3 4√ 5 6
The Responsibility for Learning	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3√ 4 5 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1√ 2 3 4√ 5√ 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5√ 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3√ 4√ 5 6√ 7√	1√ 2√ 3 4 5 6 7
The Balance of Power	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5√ 6√	1 2√ 3√ 4√ 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

Adapted from Blumberg (2009)

Teacher: 2 Time:	Teacher Centered	Lower Level Transition	No Evidence	Higher Level Transition	Learner Centered
The Function of Content	1√ 2√ 3√ 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4√	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
The Role of the Teacher	1√ 2 3√ 4√ 5 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3 4 5√ 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Responsibility for Learning	1√ 2 3 4 5 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3√ 4√ 5√ 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	1√ 2√ 3 4 5 6 7√	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√ 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The Balance of Power	1√ 2√ 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

Adapted from Blumberg (2009)

Teacher: 3 Time:	Teacher Centered	Lower Level Transition	No Evidence	Higher Level Transition	Learner Centered
The Function of Content	1 2 3 4	1√ 2 3 4	1 2 3√ 4√	1 2 3 4	1 2√ 3 4
The Role of the Teacher	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3√ 4 5√ 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1√ 2√ 3 4√ 5 6√
The Responsibility for Learning	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1√ 2√ 3√ 4 5 6√	1 2 3 4√ 5√ 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3√ 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1√ 2√ 3 4√ 5√ 6√ 7√
The Balance of Power	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3 4 5 6√	1 2 3√ 4√ 5√ 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

Adapted from Blumberg (2009)

Teacher: 4 Time:	Teacher Centered	Lower Level Transition	No Evidence	Higher Level Transition	Learner Centered
The Function of Content	1 2 3 4	1 2√ 3 4	1 2 3√ 4√	1√ 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
The Role of the Teacher	1 2 3 4 5 6	1√ 2 3 4 5√ 6√	1 2√ 3 4 5 6	1 2 3√ 4√ 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Responsibility for Learning	1√ 2√ 3√ 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	1 2 3 4√ 5 6√ 7	1 2 3√ 4 5 6 7√	1 2 3 4 5√ 6 7	1√ 2√ 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The Balance of Power	1√ 2√ 3√ 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

Adapted from Blumberg (2009)

Teacher: 5 Time:	Teacher Centered	Lower Level Transition	No Evidence	Higher Level Transition	Learner Centered
The Function of Content	1√ 2√ 3√ 4	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4√	1 2 3 4	1 2 3 4
The Role of the Teacher	1√ 2√ 3√ 4√ 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Responsibility for Learning	1√ 2 3 4√ 5√ 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3√ 4 5 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	1√ 2 3 4 5 6√ 7√	1 2√ 3√ 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4√ 5√ 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The Balance of Power	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

Adapted from Blumberg (2009)

Teacher: 6 Time:	Teacher Centered	Lower Level Transition	No Evidence	Higher Level Transition	Learner Centered
The Function of Content	1 2 3 4	1√ 2 3√ 4	1 2 3 4√	1 2√ 3 4	1 2 3 4
The Role of the Teacher	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5√ 6√	1√ 2 3√ 4√ 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Responsibility for Learning	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3√ 4√ 5√ 6	1 2√ 3 4 5 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	1 2 3 4 5√ 6√ 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7√	1 2 3 4√ 5 6 7	1√ 2√ 3√ 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The Balance of Power	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2√ 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

Adapted from Blumberg (2009)

Teacher: 7 Time:	Teacher Centered	Lower Level Transition	No Evidence	Higher Level Transition	Learner Centered
The Function of Content	1 2 3 4	1√ 2 3√ 4	1 2 3 4√	1 2√ 3 4	1 2 3 4
The Role of the Teacher	1 2 3 4 5 6	1√ 2√ 3√ 4√ 5 6	1 2 3 4 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Responsibility for Learning	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	1√ 2√ 3 4 5 6√ 7√	1 2 3√ 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4√ 5√ 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The Balance of Power	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

Adapted from Blumberg (2009)

Teacher: 8 Time:	Teacher Centered	Lower Level Transition	No Evidence	Higher Level Transition	Learner Centered
The Function of Content	1 2 3 4	1 2 3√ 4	1 2 3 4√	1√ 2√ 3 4	1 2 3 4
The Role of the Teacher	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5√ 6√	1√ 2√ 3√ 4√ 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Responsibility for Learning	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3 4 5√ 6√ 7	1 2 3√ 4√ 5 6 7	1√ 2√ 3 4 5 6 7√	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The Balance of Power	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

Adapted from Blumberg (2009)

Teacher: 9 Time:	Teacher Centered	Lower Level Transition	No Evidence	Higher Level Transition	Learner Centered
The Function of Content	1 2 3 4	1 2 3√ 4	1 2 3 4√	1√ 2√ 3 4	1 2 3 4
The Role of the Teacher	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3 4 5 6√	1 2 3 4 5√ 6	1√ 2 3√ 4√ 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Responsibility for Learning	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	1 2 3 4 5√ 6 7	1 2 3√ 4 5 6√ 7	1 2 3 4√ 5 6 7	1√ 2√ 3 4 5 6 7√	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The Balance of Power	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

Adapted from Blumberg (2009)

Teacher: 10 Time:	Teacher Centered	Lower Level Transition	No Evidence	Higher Level Transition	Learner Centered
The Function of Content	1 2 3 4	1 2 3√ 4	1 2 3 4√	1√ 2√ 3 4	1 2 3 4
The Role of the Teacher	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5√ 6√	1√ 2√ 3√ 4√ 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Responsibility for Learning	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4√ 5√ 6	1 2√ 3√ 4 5 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6
The Purposes and Processes of Assessment	1 2 3 4 5 6 7	1 2 3√ 4 5√ 6√ 7	1 2 3 4√ 5 6 7	1√ 2√ 3 4 5 6 7√	1 2 3 4 5 6 7
The Balance of Power	1√ 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2√ 3√ 4√ 5√ 6√	1 2 3 4 5 6	1 2 3 4 5 6

Adapted from Blumberg (2009)

Appendix S - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Students Liking English

Interpreter: “เพราะเราจะได้ช่วยกันแก้ไขไงคะ หาทางแก้ไขให้พวกหนูได้เรียน หาวิธีง่ายๆให้พวก
หนูได้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษได้ไงคะ ถ้าพวกหนูไม่บอกครู ครูก็ไม่รู้ละ ว่าปัญหาคืออะไร?
แล้วครูก็ช่วยพวกหนูไม่ได้ละ”

“So we can solve the problem together. Finding a way or an easy way for
you to study English? If you don’t tell me, I don’t know what the problem
is? And I won’t be able to help you.”

“เรา เราชอบเรียนภาษาอังกฤษไหมคะ?”

“Do you like learning English?”

All students: “ชอบค่ะ/ครับ

“Yes.”

Interpreter: “ชอบเรียนภาษาอังกฤษไหมคะ?”

“Do you like learning English?”

S2T5: “It’s normal.”

Researcher: “You can speak Thai if you want.”

Interpreter: “พูดไทยก็ได้ค่ะ”

“You can speak Thai.”

S2T5: “ปานกลางครับ”

“Normal.”

S1T5: “ชอบเป็นบ้างครับ”

“I like it sometimes.”

Interpreter: “Just like some not more?”

“ชอบไหมคะลูก?”

“Do you like it?”

S4T5: “ขอขอบคุณ”

“Yes.”

Appendix T - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Do Student Textbooks

- S3T1: “คำศัพท์ รูปภาพสี สันมัน น่าสนใจค่ะ”
“Vocabulary, pictures, colors are interesting.”
- S3T2: “มีสี สันละก็..”
There’s colors and..
“ได้ดู ได้รู้”
“Get to see get to know.”
- S5T4: “ตรงที่มันมีสาระค่ะ”
“The content.”
- S2T4: “มีคำศัพท์ที่น่าสนใจด้วยค่ะ”
“It has interesting vocabulary.”
- S2T5: “มีคำถามคำตอบครบแล้วเป็นแบบคำศัพท์เป็นช่องครับ question ครับ มีคำศัพท์ใน
ประโยคมาครับแบบแยกประโยคออกมาให้ตั้งประโยคครับ”
“There’re questions and answers, vocabularies in channels, questions,
vocabularies in the sentence and separate them out to make sentences.”
[multiple choice]
- S2T6: “ให้ได้รู้จักการสร้างประโยคคำถามค่ะ”
“Knowing how to create a question sentence.”
- S5T7: “ภาพวาดครับ”

“The pictures.”

S4T7: “คำศัพท์”

“Vocabulary.”

S2T8: “มันช่วยให้ได้เรียนครับ”

“It helps with studying.”

S2T9: “มันให้ความรู้ครับ”

“It gives knowledge.”

S1,S2T10: “ให้ความรู้ค่ะ/ครับ”

“It gives knowledge.”

S1T10: “เอาไปใช้ในชีวิตประจำวันแล้วก็ให้เราอ่านออก”

“Use it in our daily life and helps us to read.”

S3T3: “ทุกอย่างต้องเรียนให้จบครับ”

“Have to finish studying the book.”

“ปีหน้าผมจะขึ้น ป.สอง”

“Next year I will be in Prathom Two.”

[Grade Two]

Appendix U - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Students Playing Games

S2,S3T1: "พวกรูปภาพ คำศัพท์"

"Pictures, vocabulary."

S4T1: "เค้าจะบอกคำศัพท์แล้วให้เราเลือกภาพให้มันถูกต้องครับ"

"There would be vocabulary and let us choose correctly."

Interpreter: "อ่า วันนั้นวันที่อาจารย์ติ่มสอนเมื่อครั้งที่แล้วยังมีบอกไข่ใหม่คะ ข้างบนข้างล่าง ซ้ายขวา อันนั้นเป็นเกมส์รึเป็นอะไรคะ?"

"Ah. That day which Ajan.[Teacher] Thim had taught you, he did say about up down left right, is that a game?"

All students: "เป็นเกมส์คะ/ครับ"

"It is a game."

Interpreter: "เป็นเกมส์ประเภทไหนคะ ที่เราเล่นในห้องเรียน?"

"What kind of game did you play in class?"

S4T2: "เขียนตามคำบอกคะ"

"Dictation."

S3T2: "เขียนตามคำบอกเป็นภาษาอังกฤษคะ"

"Dictation in English."

S2T2: "ละก็ไปคำคะ"

"And hints."

Interpreter: "แล้วตอนที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษนี้ เราได้เล่นเกมสในในห้องเรียนไหมคะ?"

“And when you study in English class, Do you play games in the classroom?”

All students: “ไม่ค่ะ/ครับ”

“No.”

S3T3: “เมื่อแต่ก่อนที่ก่อน เมื่อแต่ก่อนที่ได้เล่นกับครูพรรณลดา”

“The other day I get to play with Teacher Panrada.”

Interpreter: “ถ้าเล่นเกมสในชั่วโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเนี่ย นักเรียนอยากจะเล่นเกมสแบบไหนคะ?”

“If you play games in English class, what sort of game would you like to play?”

S3T3: “แบบไหนก็ได้ถ้าให้เล่นตามใจ”

“Any games, up to us.”

S2T3: “แบบไหนก็ได้ที่มันสนุก”

“Any games that are fun.”

Interpreter: “แล้วในห้องเรียน ในชั่วโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของเราเนี่ย มีการเล่นเกมสกันไหมคะ?”

“Do you play games in your English class?”

All students: “มีค่ะ/ครับ”

“Yes.”

Interpreter: “เป็นเกมสประเภทไหนคะลูก?”

“What sort of games?”

S2,S4T4: “จับคู่ค่ะ/ครับ”

“Matching.”

Interpreter: “จับคู่? จับคู่อะไรคะ?”

“Matching? Matching with what?”

S2T4: "ฟรีเซ็น ตอบคำถามกันค่ะ"

"Present, answering questions."

Interpreter: "Work in pairs and match the words and matching the words."

Interpreter: "อ่า ในช่วงเวลาที่เราเรียนในชั่วโมงภาษาอังกฤษ ที่เราเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเนี่ยค่ะ เรา
ได้เล่นเกมอะไรบ้างไหมคะ?"

"Do you get to play games during English class?"

All students: "เล่นครับ"

"Yes."

Interpreter: "เป็นเกมประเภทไหนคะ?"

"What sort of games?"

S3,S4,S5T5: "บิงโกครับ"

"Bingo."

Interpreter: "มีการเล่นเกมไหมคะในห้องเรียน? ในชั่วโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ?"

"Do you get to play games in your English class?"

All students: "มีค่ะ/ครับ"

"Yes."

Interpreter: "เป็นเกมประเภทไหนลูก?"

"What sorts of games?"

S1T6: "ประเภท..."

"Sort of..."

S4T6: "ตอบคำถามครับ"

"Answering questions."

S1T6: "ก็มีแค่จับคู่ ตอบคำถามแค่นั้นล่ะ"

"Only be in pairs and answering questions that's all."

Interpreter: "ช่วงที่เราเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเนี่ย ตอนในช่วงโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ เราได้มีการเล่นเกมส์อะไรไหมคะ?"

"When you are learning English in your English class, do you get to play any games?"

S4,S5T7: "ไม่ครับ"

"No."

T7: "ไม่ เล่นเกมส์ที่เกี่ยวกับการเรียน ไม่ใช่ว่าเล่นเกมส์ก๊าดนะไม่ใช่"

"No. playing games about what we have learnt, not Game-boy player, no."

Interpreter: "ได้เล่นเกมส์ในช่วงโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษไหม? เล่นเกมส์ภาษาอังกฤษของเราอะ?"

"Do you get to play games in your English class? Playing English games?"

S5T7: "ครับ"

"Yes."

Interpreter: "ได้เล่นไหมคะ?"

"Do you get to play?"

All students: "คะ/ครับ"

"Yes."

Interpreter: "ชอบไหมคะ?"

"Do you like it?"

All students: "ชอบคะ/ครับ"

"Yes."

Interpreter: "อะ ยกตัวอย่างน้อยคะว่าเกมส์อันไหนที่เราชอบที่สุดในการเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ?
ไม่ใช่เกมส์นี้นะ"

"Can you give me an example, which game do you like the most from
learning English? Not this game here."

S4T7: "เกมส์คำถามครับ"

"The question game."

S5T7: "เกมส์เต้น"

"Dancing game."

T8: "ยกตัวอย่างเกมส์ที่เล่นให้ฟังหน่อยลูก เล่นเกมส์อะไรบ้าง?"

"Give an example of the games you've played? What games?"

S1T8: "เกมส์ซื้อผลไม้"

"The buying fruit game."

T8: "เกมส์ทำยังไง เกมส์ซื้อผลไม้ทำยังไง?"

"How do you do that? How do you do the buying fruit game?"

S2T8: "คลิกผลไม้"

"Click on the fruit."

T8: "โอ้ คลิก ต้องฟังอะไร?"

"Oh, click, what, do you have to listen?"

S1T8: "ฟังที่เค้าพูด"

"Listen to what they say."

T8: "ต้องฟังเสียงที่เค้าบอก เค้าบอกยังไง? ที่ฝรั่งเค้าบอก เค้าบอกว่ายังไง? เค้าบอกให้
อะไร?"

“Have to listen to what they say. How did they say it? What did the foreigner say to do?”

Interpreter: “นักเรียนได้เล่นเกมสั้ไหมคะในช่วงเวลาที่เรารเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ?”

“Do you get to play games in your English class?”

S1,S3,S4T9: “ได้ครับ/คะ”

“Yes.”

Interpreter: “เป็นเกมสั้แบบไหนคะ?”

“What sort of games?”

S1,S2,S3T9: “ตอบคำถามครับ”

“Answering questions.”

Interpreter: “มีอย่างอื่นไหม?”

“Is there anything else?”

S2,S3T9: “ไม่ครับ”

“No.”

Interpreter: “ในช่วโมงภาษาอังกฤษเราได้เล่นเกมสั้ไหมคะ?”

“Do you get to play games in your English class?”

All students: “ได้คะ/ได้เล่นเกมสั้”

“Yes, we get to play games.”

Interpreter: “เป็นเกมสั้แบบไหนคะที่เราเล่นในช่วโมงเรียน ในห้องเรียนเรา?”

“What sort of games do you play in your class?”

S1T10: [Dialogue not heard]

Interpreter: "ครูแก่แล้วเสียงอะไม่ค่อยได้ยิน"

"I'm old already, can't hear properly."

S1T10: "เกมส์แบบว่าที่เล่นแล้วได้ความรู้ครับ"

"Games that we can play and get knowledge from it."

Interpreter: "ยกตัวอย่างได้ไหม? เป็นเกมส์อะไรที่เราเล่นอยู่?"

"Can you give an example? What games do you play?"

S1T10: "ทายคำศัพท์ภาษาอังกฤษครับ"

"Guessing English vocabularies."

Interpreter: "แค่นั้นหรือคะ?"

"That's all?"

S1T10: "เต้น ออกกำลังกาย"

"Dancing Exercise."

S2T10: "ร้องเพลง"

"Singing."

Appendix V - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Students Singing in English

Interpreter: "ได้ร้องเพลงไหมคะ?"

"Do you get to sing?"

All students: "ร้องอยู่ค่ะ/ครับ"

"Yes. We do."

Interpreter: "เพลงอะไรคะที่ชอบ?"

"What songs do you like?"

S1T1: "Can you remember."

Interpreter: "ทำไมถึงจำเพลงนั้นได้?"

"Why do you remember that song?"

S1T1: "มันเป็นเพลงแรกในบทเรียนที่ได้เรียนและก็ร้องบ่อยค่ะ"

"It's the first song we get to learn in the class and we get to sing it often."

Interpreter: "อ่า เวลาเราเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเนี่ย เราได้มีการร้องเพลงภาษาอังกฤษไหมคะ ใน

ห้องเรียน?"

"When you learn English, do you get to sing English songs in the classroom?"

S3,S5T2: "มีค่ะ"

"Yes."

Researcher: "What songs? What songs are these?"

All students: "ไม่มีค่ะ"

"No."

Interpreter: "ชอบร้องเพลงไหมคะ?"

"Do you like singing songs?"

All students: "ชอบค่ะ"

"Yes."

Interpreter: "เรามีการร้องเพลงในห้องเรียนวิชาภาษาอังกฤษไหมคะ?"

"Do you get to sing a song in your English class?"

S1,S2,S4,S5T3:"มีค่ะ"

"Yes."

S3T3: "Yes."

Interpreter: "จำได้ไหมคะว่าเพลงอะไรที่เราชอบ เราชอบเพลงอะไร? นี่คือหัว อะไรนะ?"

"Can you remember what songs do you like? What songs do you like?

What?"

S4,S5T3: "เพลง Hello"

"Hello song."

Interpreter: "ร้องออกมาได้ไหม? ร้องได้ไหม?"

"Can you sing out loud?"

All students: "ร้องได้"

"Yes."

"Hello, hello, hello how are you. I'm fine, I'm fine, I hope that you are too."

Interpreter: "แล้วในชั่วโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของเราเนี่ย เราได้มีการร้องเพลงกันไหมคะ?"

"And when you're learning English, do you get to sing?"

All students: "มีค่ะ/ครับ"

"Yes."

Interpreter: "เป็นเพลงประเภทไหนคะ?"

"What sort of songs?"

S5T4: "ภาษาอังกฤษค่ะ"

"English songs."

Interpreter: "เพลงภาษาอังกฤษเพลงไรลูก?"

"What kind of English songs?"

All students: "ซิคเก้น แดนซ์ครีป/ค่ะ"

"Chicken Dance."

Interpreter: "ซิคเก้น แดนซ์ร้องยังไ้ลูก?"

"How do you sing the Chicken Dance song?"

T4: "อันนี้คือเสียงร้อง"

"This only has sound."

All students: "มีแต่ดนตรีครีป/ค่ะ"

"Only has music."

Interpreter: "มีเพลงอะไรที่เราร้องอีก มีไหม?"

"Are there any other songs you can sing?"

T4: "จำชื่อเพลงไม่ได้"

"Can't remember the name of the song."

Interpreter: "ในห้องเรียน เวลาในช่วงเวลาที่เราเรียนภาษาอังกฤษนี้เราได้มีการร้องเพลงภาษาอังกฤษกันไหมคะ?"

"Do you get to sing English songs in your English class?"

All students: "มีครับ ร้องครับ"

"Yes."

Interpreter: "เป็นเพลงประเภทไหนคะ?"

"What sort of songs?"

S2T5: "เพลงรักครีป Cry on my shoulder."

“Love songs. Cry on my shoulder.”

Interpreter: “ร้องให้ฟังได้ไหมคะ? ครูไม่เคยได้ยิน”

“Can you sing to me? I’ve never heard it before.”

S2T5: “ร้องไม่ได้ครับ ร้องไปแบบ ร้องเป็นจังหวะที่ฟังแล้วครูเค้าให้เขียนครับ ร้องเป็นจังหวะเป็นช้อยส์ขึ้นมา มันจะเป็นแบบไม่รู้ครับ มันจะเป็นเพลงไซ้ใหม่ครับละก็มีเนื้อเพลงจะมีแบบเว้นไว้อยู่และคราวนี้ให้เขียนให้เราตอบ”

“I can’t sing. We sing along with the beat and the teacher will let us write it down from the choices. There are lyrics and gaps and we have to write it down.”

Interpreter: “ชอบไซ้ไหมคะ?”

“Do you like it?”

S1,S2T5: “ก็พอได้ ก็ชอบครับ”

“Can do it, I like it.”

Interpreter: “แล้วในชั่วโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของเราเนี่ย เราได้มีการร้องเพลงอะไรไหมคะ?”

“And do you get to sing in your English class?”

S1,S2,S3T6: “มีค่ะ”

“Yes.”

Interpreter: “เป็นเพลงประเภทไหนลูก? เป็นเพลงประเภทไหนคะที่เราร้องเพลงในชั่วโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ? อะร้องให้ฟังหน่อยได้ไหม?”

“What sorts of songs? What sorts of songs do you get to sing in English class? Can you sing for me?”

S1,S3T6: “จำไม่ค่อยได้แล้วค่ะ”

“Can’t remember that much.”

Interpreter: "อ่า ในช่วงเวลาที่เราอ่านเรียนชั่วโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเนี่ย เราได้ร้องเพลงไหมคะ?"

"Do you get to sing songs in your English class?"

All students: "ได้ค่ะ/ครับ"

"Yes."

Interpreter: "เป็นเพลงประเภทไหนคะ"

"What sorts of songs do you sing?"

S5T7: "Hello."

Interpreter: "เพลง Hello?"

"Hello song?"

S5T7: "ครับ"

"Yes."

Interpreter: "ร้องให้ฟังสักนิดนึง"

"Can you sing a little bit?"

All students &

T7: "Hello, hello, how are you? How are you? How are you?"

Hello, hello, how are you? I'm fine thank you."

[Singing together]

All students &

T7: "โมชิ โมชิ อาโนเนะ อาโนเนะ อาโนเนะ"

โมชิ โมชิ อาโนเนะ อายโซเดสเสตก"

[Singing in Japanese]

T7: "Stand up."

All students: "Hello, hello, how are you? How are you? How are you?"

Hello, hello, how are you? I'm fine thank you."

[Singing and dancing together]

All students: "โมชิ โมชิ อาโนเนะ อาโนเนะ อาโนเนะ

โมชิ โมชิ อาโนเนะ อายิโซเดสเสตก"

[Singing and dancing in Japanese]

T8: "อาจารย์ถามว่าลูกๆร้องเพลงกับครูใช่ไหมคะ? ลูกชอบเพลงอะไรบ้าง?"

"Ajarn [teacher] asked you to sing a song with the teacher right? What songs do you like?"

S2T8: "Let it go."

T8: "Let it go."

"เพลงฝรั่งเลยนะ เพลงอะไรที่เราร้องอะ? Yes And No ร้องยังงั้นลูก?"

"A foreign song, what song did you sing? How do you sing the Yes And No song?"

All students &

T8: [Singing Yes And No Song]

Interpreter: "มี เวลาที่เราเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเราได้มีการร้องเพลงภาษาอังกฤษไหมคะ? ร้องเพลงภาษาอังกฤษมีไหม?"

"Do you get to sing songs in your English class? Do you get to sing English songs?"

S2,S3T9: "มีครับ"

"Yes."

Interpreter: "เป็นเพลงอะไรคะ?"

"What song is it?"

S3T9: "เพลงอาเซียนครับ"

"ASEAN song."

Interpreter: "อะร้องให้ฟังหน่อยได้ไหม? คิดเพลงอะไรออกตอนนี้ร้องให้ฟังหน่อยได้ไหม? ที่ๆเรา"

"Can you sing for me? Any song you can think of, can you sing to me?"

"เพลงอาเซียน ร้องให้ฟังหน่อยก็ได้ ร้องยังไงคะ?"

"ASEAN song, can you sing to me? How do you sing it?"

All students: [*Singing ASEAN Song*]

S3T10: "ว้าว"

"Wow."

Interpreter: "ว้าว"

"Wow."

S1T10: "ของผมนเลือกเพลงแบบว่าเป็นเพลง*****"

"Me, I choose *****"

Interpreter: "*****"

S1T10: "Hello song."

Interpreter: "Hello song."

S2T10: "Hello song."

Interpreter: "Hello song."

S3T10: "Hello song."

Interpreter: "Hello song."

S4T10: "Hello song."

Interpreter: "Yeah."

S5T10: "Hello song."

Appendix W - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Students Watching Videos

Interpreter: "นักเรียนได้ดูวิดีโอสอนภาษาอังกฤษในห้องเรียนไหมคะ?"

"Do you get to watch a video about teaching English in class?"

All students: "ดูค่ะ/ครับ"

"Yes."

S1T1: "เหมือนครูจะให้ทำข้อสอบโอเน็ตมั้งคะ มันจะเป็นแนวข้อสอบอะไรของมันนี่แหละค่ะ"

"The teacher let us do the O-net test I think. To help with the test."

Interpreter: "ชอบไหมคะ?"

"Do you like it?"

S1T1: "มันก็โอเคอยู่ค่ะ"

"It's ok."

Interpreter: "เป็นวิดีโอตัวไหนคะที่ชอบ? ที่นักเรียนชอบ?"

"Which video do you like?"

S1T1: "หนังล่าสุดเรื่องอะไรนะ?"

"What's the latest movie?"

S4,S5T1: "ฮีโร่"

"Hero."

Interpreter: "ในช่วงโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ เราได้มีโอกาสได้ดูวิดีโอไหมคะ?"

"In English class, do you have the chance to watch videos?"

All students: "ไม่ค่ะ"

"No."

Interpreter: "ถ้านักเรียนได้มีโอกาสได้ดูวิดีโอเนี่ย นักเรียนอยากดูวิดีโอแบบไหนคะ?"

“If you had a chance to watch videos, what sort of videos would you like to see?”

S2,S5T2: “แบบสอน”

“Teaching.”

S5T2: “แล้วให้พูดตามค่ะ”

“And let us repeat after.”

Interpreter: “อะ ที่นี่ในห้องเรียนเนี่ย เราได้มีการดูวิดีโอไหมคะ?”

“Ah, now in your classroom, Do they have videos for you to watch?”

S2,S3,S4T3: “มี”

“Yes, they have.”

S1,S5T3: “ไม่”

“No.”

S3T3: “Yes.”

S2T3: “ได้ดูเป็นบางครั้ง”

“We get to watch sometimes.”

Interpreter: “เป็นวิดีโอเรื่องไหนคะ ที่นักเรียนชอบดูมากที่สุดเลย?”

“What video that you like to watch the most?”

All students: “เดือนเพ็ญ”

“Duean-Pen.”

[A movie that the school has arranged for them about students and teachers teaching in the classroom]

S3T3: “แล้วก็ฉายหนังเรื่องการ์ตูนให้ดู Tom And Jerry”

“And there’s also the Tom And Jerry cartoon.”

Interpreter: "แล้วในห้องเรียนในชั่วโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษของเราเนี่ย เราได้ดูวิดีโอกันไหมคะ?"

"And do you watch videos in your English class?"

All students: "ได้ค่ะ/ครับ"

"Yes."

Interpreter: "เป็นวิดีโอแบบไหนคะลูก?"

"What sort of videos?"

All students: "เพลงค่ะ/ครับ"

"Songs."

Interpreter: "อย่างอื่นมีอีกไหมคะ?"

"Anything else?"

S5T4: "การนับเลขด้วยค่ะ"

"Counting numbers too."

Interpreter: "อ่า เราได้มีการดูวิดีโอในห้องเรียนเราไหมคะ ในชั้นเรียนเราไหมในชั่วโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ?"

"Do you get to watch videos in your English class?"

S2,S5T5: "เป็นบางครั้งครับ"

"Sometimes."

Interpreter: "อ่า เป็นเกี่ยวกับอะไรคะที่เราได้ดูวิดีโอ?"

"What is the video about?"

S3T5: "เกี่ยวกับคำศัพท์ครับ"

"About vocabulary."

S2T5: "คำศัพท์ครับ อย่างเช่น Present Simple Tense ประโยคพหูพจน์อะไรพวกนี้ครับ"

“Vocabulary for example, Present Simple Tense, Plurals something like this.”

Interpreter: “อ่า ในชั่วโมงเรียนในห้องเรียนของเราเนี่ย เราได้มีการดูวิดีโอกันไหมคะ? ได้ดูวิดีโอ
กันไหม ในชั่วโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ?”

“Do you get to watch any videos in your English class?”

All students: “ไม่ค่ะ/ครับ”

“No.”

Interpreter: “อยากดูไหมคะ?”

“Do you want to watch videos?”

All students: “อยากค่ะ”

“Yes.”

Interpreter: “ถ้า ถ้าครูให้ดูนักเรียนอยากจะดูเกี่ยวกับอะไรคะ? เกี่ยวกับภาษาอังกฤษ ที่เป็น
ภาษาอังกฤษ อยากดูอะไร?”

“If I let you watch it, what would you like to see about English in English?”

What do you want to see?”

S1T6: “อยากดูเกี่ยวกับ เอ็ม การเรียนของต่างประเทศค่ะ”

“I would like to watch about foreign education learning.”

S3T6: “แล้วก็ประวัติศาสตร์ของอังกฤษค่ะ”

“And the history of England.”

S2T6: “ละก็อยากดูการทักทายของภาษาอังกฤษค่ะ”

“And I would like to watch greetings in English.”

S5T6: “คำศัพท์ของภาษาอังกฤษครับ”

“English vocabulary.”

S4T6: “เพลงของภาษาอังกฤษครับ”

“English songs.”

Interpreter: "อ่า นักเรียนชอบดูวิดีโอในชั่วโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษไหมคะ?"

"Do you like to watch videos in your English class?"

All students: "ชอบค่ะ/ครับ"

"Yes."

Interpreter: "เป็นวิดีโอแบบไหนคะที่เราชอบ?"

"What sort of videos do you like?"

S5T7: "เต้นครับ"

"Dancing."

S2T7: "นิทาน"

"Stories."

S4T7: "เต้นค่ะ"

"Dancing."

T8: "เวลาที่เรายู่ในห้องเรียน ได้ดูวิดีโอที่ครูเปิดให้ไหม? ได้ดูใช่ไหม? ดูวิดีโออะไรบ้าง?"

"Do you get to watch videos that the teacher plays for you in class? Do you get to watch them? What videos do you get to watch?"

S1T8: "เอลซ่า"

"Elsa."

T8: "ห๊ะ? เอลซ่า"

"What? Elsa."

"Ah, Frozen, Frozen."

Interpreter: "ในช่วงเวลาที่เรารเรียนภาษาอังกฤษเนี่ย เราได้ดูวิดีโอไหมคะ?"

"Do you get to watch videos in your English class?"

S1,S2T9: "ไม่ครับ"

"No."

Interpreter: "ในช่วงเวลาที่เรารเรียนภาษาอังกฤษ เราได้ดูวิดีโอไหม?"

"Do you get to watch videos in your English class?"

S4T9: "ไม่ค่อยได้ดูค่ะ"

"Not often."

S3T9: "ได้ดูคำศัพท์เฉยๆครับ"

"Only get to watch just vocabulary."

S1T9: "ไม่ค่อยได้ดู"

"Not often."

SOT9: "ได้ดูคำศัพท์อยู่"

"Get to watch vocabulary."

Interpreter: "ถ้านักเรียนมีโอกาสได้ดูวิดีโอ นักเรียนอยากดูวิดีโอแบบไหนคะ? วิดีโอเกี่ยวกับอะไร?"

"If you get a chance to watch a video, what video do you want to watch? What about?"

S2T9: "เกี่ยวกับการเขียนครับ"

"About writing."

Interpreter: "คนอื่นล่ะคะ?"

"Anybody else?"

SOT9: "ดูหนัง"

"Watching movies."

S3T9: "เกี่ยวกับการร้องเพลงครับ"

"About singing songs."

SOT9: "นั่งตลก"

“Comedy movie.”

“หนังผีครับ”

“Scary movie.”

S3T9: “การ์ตูนครับ”

“Cartoons.”

Interpreter: “นักเรียนชอบดูวิดีโอในช่วงโมงเรียนภาษาอังกฤษไหมคะ?”

“Do you like watching videos in your English class?”

All students: “ชอบค่ะ/ครับ”

“Yes.”

Interpreter: “เป็นซีดีเป็นวิดีโอเกี่ยวกับอะไรคะที่เราชอบที่เราอยากดู?”

“On a CD, video? About what you like, what do you want to see?”

S3T10: “การ์ตูน”

“Cartoons.”

S1T10: “เพลงเต้นภาษาอังกฤษ”

“English dancing songs.”

S4T10: “Chicken.”

T10: “Chicken dance.”

Appendix X - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Groupwork or Working

Individually

S3T6: "เพราะว่าเพื่อนจะได้สลับเปลี่ยนความรู้ เพื่อนต่อเพื่อนค่ะ"

"Because we can exchange our knowledge with each other."

S1T1: "เวลาทำไม่ได้ น่าจะได้ดูด้วยกัน"

"When I can't do it, we can look together."

S4T1: "ปรึกษากันครับ"

"Collaborate."

S5T2: "มันสนุกค่ะ จะได้ปรึกษากัน"

"It's fun, we can consult each other."

S3T3: "เพราะว่าจะได้เรียนเก่งครับ"

"Because we will study well."

S1T4: "ก็ช่วยกันคิดได้ครับ"

"So we can help each other thinking."

S5T4: "มันก็ช่วยกัน"

"We can help each other."

S1T5: "ปรึกษาพอเราไม่รู้ก็ให้เพื่อนบอก แนะนำ"

"Discussing when we don't understand, friends can tell us and give us an advice."

S4,S5T7: "ช่วยกันคิด ช่วยกันตอบครับ"

“Help each other think, help each other answer.”

S2T8: “ช่วยกันทำการบ้าน”

“Help each other doing homework.”

S2T9: “ทำงานช่วยกันครับ”

“Help each other working.”

S1T9: “ไปทำงานแล้วก็สนุกดีครับ”

“It’s fun when we get to do work.”

S5T10: “สามัคคีครับ”

“Harmonious.”

Appendix Y - Selected Transcription Including Thai for Work Graded by Peers or Teachers

S1T2: "คุณครูจะสลับกันตรวจค่ะ"

"The teacher will let us switch with each other to check."

S5T2: "สลับกันตรวจละก็เนี่ย แล้วก็พาสะกดคำตามค่ะ"

"Switch to check and then answer and spelling."

Interpreter: "แล้วถ้าคุณครูตรวจให้เนี่ย นักเรียนชอบไหมคะ?"

"And, do you like it when the teacher checks it?"

All students: "ไม่ค่ะ"

"No."

Interpreter: "ทำไมถึงไม่ชอบล่ะคะ?"

"Why don't you like it?"

S5T2: "คุณครูไม่ได้พาฝึกสะกดด้วยค่ะ"

"The teacher doesn't practice spelling with us."

S3T2: "ถ้าครูตรวจครูก็จะพูดด้วยแล้วเราก็เข้าใจด้วย"

"If the teacher is checking and explain too, we will understand."

Interpreter: "When the teacher ticks the mark they cannot listen to whether the words they do are correct or wrong but when they tick by themselves the teacher is going to read for them and like say the words are correct or not."

S1T5: "ตรวจเองกับเพื่อน"

"We check with our friends."

S2T5: "แลกกันเปลี่ยน เปลี่ยนกับเพื่อนตรวจครับ"

"We change to check with our friends."

- Interpreter: "แล้วก็คือถ้าคุณครูตรวจให้ใหม่?"
 "Do you like it if the teacher checks your work?"
- S1,S2,S3T5: "ก็ชอบครับ ได้ครับ"
 "Yes. They can do it."
- S1T5: "แต่ว่าส่วนมากจะแลกกับเพื่อนตรวจ"
 "But mostly with change to check with our friends."
- S2T5: "แลกกันตรวจแล้วลงคะแนน แล้วให้ครูตรวจเช็คทำงานผ่านครับ?"
 "Change with friends and check it and then grade it and we hand it in for the teacher to check whether we pass or not."
- S2T1: "เพราะจะทำให้ได้เกรดสี่ค่ะ"
 "Because it will get Grade Point Four."
 "ถ้าเพื่อน เพื่อนอาจจะเกรงใจเรา แบบว่าเราว่าให้เขา"
 "If it's our friend, they might be afraid that we will complain their work."
- S3T3: "เพราะว่าจะได้คะแนนเมื่อทำถูกแล้ว"
 "Because we will get points if we do it correctly."
- S4T3: "เพื่อเพื่อนตรวจไม่ถูก"
 "In case our friends might make a mistake."
- S5T4: "เพราะได้สติ๊กเกอร์ค่ะ"
 "Because we get stickers."
- S3T6: "เพราะว่าการติ๊กถูกทำให้เรารู้ว่าเราทำถูกแล้วค่ะ"
 "Because ticking them correct makes us know that we have done it correctly."
- S2T6: "หลายๆครั้งเพื่อนก็ซี้โกงค่ะ"
 "A lot of times, my friends cheat."
- S5T7: "ครูตรวจให้ ไม่ได้ตรวจครับ ให้คุณครูตรวจให้เลย"

“The teacher mark then I don’t get to mark it so just let the teacher mark it.”

S2T7: “มันสบาย”

“It’s comfortable.”

[It’s easy]

S2T8: [Student cannot be heard]

T8: “ห๊ะ? อะไรนะ?”

“What?”

S2T8: [Student cannot be heard]

T8: “They said their friends may check the points incorrect answer wrong answer.”

Interpreter: “ทำไมถึงไม่ชอบให้เพื่อนตรวจให้คะ?”

“Why don’t you like your friend to mark your work?”

S4T9: “เพื่อเค้าตรวจผิดคะ”

“In case they check it wrong.”

S4T10: “เก็บคะแนน”

“To get points.”

S1T10: [Student cannot be heard]

Interpreter: “Because all of the grade is hers and sometimes with friends, they tick the mark for them maybe they do wrong.”

Appendix Z - Selected Transcription Including Thai for English Outside the Classroom

S2S3T1: "พูดกับพี่ กับญาติ"

"With brothers and sisters and cousins."

S1T1: "มันสนุกค่ะ มันแปลกๆดี"

"It's fun and a good strange."

Interpreter: "เวลาเราฝึกสนทนาคู่กับเพื่อนนะคะ เราพูดอะไรกับเพื่อน?"

"When you practice speaking with your friends, What do you talk about?"

All students: "คำทักทาย"

"Greetings."

Interpreter: "ยกตัวอย่างเช่น"

"For example."

All students: "Good morning."

Interpreter: "แล้วเพื่อนตอบว่าไงคะ? เราบอก good morning แล้วเพื่อนตอบว่าไงคะ?"

"And what did your friend answer? You say good morning and your friend answered?"

All students: "Good morning."

Interpreter: "แล้วสนทนากับเค้ายังไปข้างคะ?"

"And what's your conversation with him/her?"

[The foreigner]

S2T5: "ก็ทักทายครับ Say hello, Good morning, evening."

"Greetings, say hello, good morning, evening."

"What's your name, how do you do, ชวนเล่นกีฬาครับ?"

"What's your name, how do you do, inviting them to play sport."

S2,S3T6: "พูดกับเพื่อน"

"Speak with friends."

S1T6: "พูดกับเพื่อนกับพ่อแม่ค่ะ"

"Speak with friends and parents."

S2T8: "กับเพื่อนครับ"

"With friends."

T8: "แล้วพอกับแม่ล่ะ ลูกๆได้คุยด้วยไหม?"

"How about dad and mom, do you get to speak to them?"

All students: "คุย"

"Yes."

T8: "คุย คุยยังงี้บ้างเล่าให้ฟังหน่อย?"

"Yes. What do you talk about, can you tell me?"

S2T8: "เล่นเกมส์กับแม่"

"Playing games with mom."

Interpreter: "มีใครพูดภาษาอังกฤษกับผู้ปกครองไหมคะ? พ่อแม่เราไหม?"

“Does anyone speak English to their parents? Your dad and mom?”

S3T9: “พูดแต่ Yes No Ok ครับ”

“Only say Yes, No, OK.”

Interpreter: “พูดกับใครคะ คุณพ่อ?”

“Who do you speak to? Your dad?”

S1,S2,S3T10: “กับเพื่อนๆ/ครับ”

“To friends.”

Interpreter: “แล้วผู้ปกครองเราล่ะคะ พ่อแม่เราได้พูดภาษาอังกฤษด้วยไหม?”

“How about your parents? Do you get to speak English to them?”

All students: “ไม่ค่ะ/ครับ”

“No.”